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# ANALYTICAL REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1793.

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VOYAGES. TRAVELS.

ART. I. *An historical Journal of the Transactions at Port Jackson and Norfolk Island, with the Discoveries which have been made in New South Wales and in the Southern Ocean, since the Publication of Phillip's Voyage, compiled from the official Papers, including the Journals of Governors Phillip and King, and of Lieutenant Ball; and the Voyages from the first sailing of the Sirius in 1787, to the Return of that Ship's Company to England in 1792.* By John Hunter, Esq. Post Captain in his Majesty's Navy. Illustrated with 17 Maps, Charts, Views, and other Embellishments. Royal 4to. 583 pages. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. in boards. Stockdale. 1793.

WHEN it was determined by government, in the year 1786, to send such of the convicts as were sentenced to transportation, to New South Wales; it was thought necessary to have a second captain on board governor Phillip's ship, and Mr. Hunter, the author of this journal, and an excellent seaman, was appointed to this station, with the rank of post captain. The first ten chapters of the work contain his journal. On the first two of these, which detail the voyage, it is unnecessary to dwell; because we had a full account of it before in governor Phillip's Voyage, which we reviewed very minutely in our sixth volume. For the same reason we shall pass over the first arrangement of the new settlement at Port Jackson, together with many occurrences which happened both then and afterwards; and confine ourselves to what appears most interesting, or to such circumstances as have not been before related.

In the third chapter, it is said that the natives about Botany-bay and Port Jackson were found in considerable numbers, and so far from being a stupid race of people, they appeared to be very lively and inquisitive: they are straight, thin, and well made, rather small in their limbs, but very active, and erect in their walk, from five feet six inches to five feet nine inches high: their colour a rusty black, something like soot; their noses in general broad, their mouths large and wide, and their lips thick. They are abominably filthy, from smearing their skin with fat, and afterwards covering it with every sort of dirt.

They chiefly inhabit the sea coast, because they live almost entirely on fish, and the interior of the country produces little for sustenance; except the fern-root which they chew, and a small fruit the size of a cherry.

They generally appear armed with a lance about ten feet long, which they throw with considerable force sixty or seventy and even ninety yards, by means of a stick about three feet in length.

As the cold weather approaches they remove northwards, following the sun in search of a warmer climate; and this accounts for captain Cook having seen few people when he was in Botany Bay.

In the neighbourhood of Sydney Cove there are many spots of tolerably good land, but they are in general of small extent; the rest is rather a poor soil, full of stones.

Whether any of the natives are cannibals, is yet a matter, says Mr. H., on which we cannot speak positively. He seems however inclined to believe, that, although they do not in general eat human flesh, yet it is sometimes practised: and two children being asked what the chiefs did with those they killed, mentioned some who burnt and buried the slain, but named one who ate those he killed.

This chapter contains a register of the weather during a year from the time of their arrival; and observations for the longitude, made by captain H. and lieutenant Bradley.

*Chapters* four and five give an account of a voyage made by captain H. in the *Sirius* to the Cape of Good Hope and back, in order to procure provisions for the settlement. They took on board at the Cape twelve months provision for the ship's company, and six months flour for the whole settlement, beside various stores, &c.

They were absent 219 days, 51 of which they lay in Table Bay: so that, although they had fairly gone round the world, they had only been 168 days in describing that circle. These chapters contain many observations that will be useful to seamen; tables of winds and weather; and a chart of the southern hemisphere, with the track of the ship.

*Chapter* six. Account of *Ara-ba-noo*, one of the natives, who had been taken by force, but was reconciled to his situation by kind treatment. This was done with a view to facilitate a friendly intercourse with the natives; but he unfortunately died of the small pox, which made great ravages among the people of the country. However, two children labouring under this disease were picked up, and being taken care of in the hospital, both recovered. But these children being too young to be of use in reconciling the natives to the colony, the governor was desirous of having a man or two in his possession for that purpose. Accordingly in November, 1789, two men were seized upon, who, on their arrival at Sydney-Cove, proved to be well known to the girl and boy above-mentioned. One of these escaped in the third week of his captivity, and the other some time afterwards.

Discouraging



Discouraging account of the plantation at Rose Hill, for want of water, and from the destruction made by rats, with which the country is over-run.

The governor visits Broken-bay, with a party; and a survey is made both of that and Botany-bay, by captain H.

*Chapter seven.* At the beginning of the year 1790, no ships being arrived from Europe, and the colony having no more provisions than were sufficient to last it till June, the governor thought it necessary to divide the settlement; and accordingly, in March, a considerable number of persons were sent, under the command of major Ross, on board the *Sirius* and *Supply*, to Norfolk Island. It is well known that this island has no harbour, and that landing is attended with great difficulties. After the people were put on shore, and before an opportunity offered of landing the provisions and stores, the *Sirius* struck upon a reef of coral rocks, and was wrecked. The crew, however, and the principal part of the provisions were saved. But their distress was great, for they were 506 in number, on a small island, only five miles in length, and three in breadth, 300 leagues from the nearest coast of New South Wales. And after being five or six weeks without hearing from thence, they were obliged to reduce themselves to a very scanty portion of flour, salt-beef or pork, and rice. In this distress however they found a considerable resource in the vast abundance of sea-birds, called Norfolk-island petrels, which resorted every night to Mount Pitt, the highest ground in the island. The supply of fish was uncertain and trifling.

On the 24th of July, 1790, upwards of four months after the wreck of the *Sirius*, there being no more than ten or twelve days salt provision left, it was judged necessary to stop it so long as birds were to be caught, and the people were all reduced to three pounds of flour, and one pint of rice by the week, or the same quantity of Indian corn meal instead of wheat flour, or else wheat ground with the husks and bran. This scanty diet reduced the people in general very low. A considerable portion of cleared land was planted with potatoes, as the first thing from which they could expect any relief.

On the fourth of August they espied a sail, which they discovered to be an English ship, and it was not more than six or seven miles off shore. Judge then of their joy in the expectation of its speedy arrival; and of their disappointment, when they saw it before the wind, and making sail from the island. Three days after, however, they discovered two other ships, which proved to be the *Justinian* and *Surprize* from Port Jackson, with provision, and an additional number of 200 convicts.

'The arrival of supplies at this critical juncture was truly comfortable, and a strong instance of the kindness of Divine Providence: for our great and indeed only resource began to fail us very fast—The Mount Pitt birds were now very scarce; and the fish failed us entirely; so that had these supplies been detained six weeks longer, we should have been reduced to a most deplorable situation.'

At the beginning of the year 1791, the Supply armed tender arrived. On her return from Norfolk Island, lieutenant Ball was dispatched in her to Batavia, where he procured a Dutch snow of about 300 tons, which he loaded with beef, pork, flour, rice, and various hospital stores. She brought a few stores for Norfolk Island, with orders to embark the remaining officers and crew of the Sirius. It will be readily supposed that they received this information with great joy; having been on this small island eleven months, and during great part of that time experiencing much distress and vexation. They embarked on the eleventh of February, and on the twenty-seventh arrived at Port Jackson.

The chapter concludes with a short account of Norfolk Island, and particular directions to ships in making it.

It is thickly covered with wood, consisting of six or seven kinds of trees, among which the pines are the most conspicuous. These are from 150 to 200 feet in height, and in circumference from twelve or fourteen to twenty-eight or thirty feet. Being straight, and free from branches to forty or sixty feet, it was hoped they might be fit for masts, for ships of any size; but they are seldom found, and the timber is short grained and spongy, fit only for house-building; it is also exceedingly heavy, and the great difficulty of getting it to the sea, and shipping it, would render it of little value for masts.

'Arthur's Vale, which is near the settlement, and the first place that was cleared for cultivation, is a pretty spot of level ground, and the most extensive flat yet cleared; it contains eleven acres. The very great unevenness of the ground occasions much labour, for it is impossible to use the plough, and every thing must be done by hand. In February, 1791, above 100 acres were cleared for the public, exclusive of private gardens; but all the roots of the trees were left in the ground, which would no doubt occupy a fifth part. The soil is remarkably fine and deep: it seems to be composed principally of a fat clay, and decayed vegetable matter.'

The flax plant grows chiefly on the sea coast.

Opinions have been given that this island will maintain 2000 inhabitants. If it were all cleared and cultivated, captain H. allows that it would furnish many of the necessaries of life for such a number: but in its present state he thinks a fourth part of that number too many. The crops are very subject to blights from the sea winds, and there are immense numbers of the grub worm and caterpillars: there is also a fly very destructive to the gardens and corn: but the author observes very properly, that when a large extent of ground is cleared, these vermin probably may not be so frequent. Indian corn grows here with great advantage, producing from forty to fifty bushels an acre, planted with about a peck. This little island is well watered; several fine streams flowing from Mount Pitt, to both sides of it. Two of them, even in very dry weather, are capable of turning a mill.

*Chapter*

*Chapter eight.* Considerable improvements at Rose Hill. A town laid out, many good buildings erected, roads cut, 213 acres cleared for corn, and eighty for buildings and gardens. 'This favourite spot, which is certainly better than any near Port Jackson, is however a poor, sandy, steril soil; the surface is covered a few inches deep with earth which seems to be produced from decayed vegetation; and under that is a mere bed of sand. Rose Hill is certainly a pretty situation, but the country will require much manure, much dressing, and good farmers to manage it, before good crops can be expected from it.'

'Land capable of cultivation extends to the westward about twenty miles, but in a north and south direction not more than three or four miles; when you come again into barren, rocky land. The best appears to be a poor, miserable, sandy soil; and what must subject those who live on it to much inconvenience is, the very great scarcity of water.'

This situation and Norfolk Island are both remarkably healthy, although they are subject to sudden vicissitudes of heat and cold.

In September 1790, the governor, in order to dispose the natives to confide in our people, went down to the harbour, to see and converse with the two natives who had escaped, and to invite them to his house. Being informed that they, with several others, were in Collins's-cove, he went thither, accompanied by several other gentlemen, all unarmed. This want of caution had very nearly proved fatal to the governor, who was severely wounded by a spear in the right shoulder. Soon after, however, the two men above-mentioned came to the settlement, were kindly received, had many presents made them, and returned to their friends when they thought proper. They afterwards came with their wives and families, and their example was followed by many others: so that before captain H. left Port Jackson they were become very familiar, and a company of more than twenty entertained our people with one of their dances, which is described at the close of this chapter.

*Chapters nine and ten* contain the account of captain H.'s return to England by Batavia, in the *Waakzaamheid*, a Dutch transport. He embarked on the 27th of March, 1791. On the 23d of May, their water becoming short, they anchored off the Duke of York's Island, in a bay named Port Hunter, latitude  $4^{\circ} 7' 30''$ , longitude  $152^{\circ} 42'$  east. After encountering some opposition from the natives, they accomplished their watering, and quitted the island in perfect peace with the inhabitants; but that peace was purchased by the fire of their small arms and artillery.

This island appears to be about ten miles long, of moderate height, and flat, well covered with wood, and the soil of the richest kind. The huts of the natives small, and neatly made, chiefly of bamboo, placed under the shade of a grove of cocoa-nut trees, with a fence before them, within which the ground is well cleared and trodden. In these enclosures the plantain, banana, yam, sugar-cane, &c. are cultivated with some pains.



In short the island is a perfect garden, and produces cocoa-nuts, yams, plantains, bananas, sugar-cane, betle-nut, mangos, bread-fruit, and guavas. There are also dogs, hogs, poultry, and some spices: the nutmeg was seen by the author. Their canoes are neatly made, and have an outrigger.

The natives are stout, robust, well made, and of a light copper colour; they go entirely naked; their hair is woolly, but they dress it with grease and powder, and make it hang like candle-wicks, or the thrums of a mop reversed; they are generally as fully powdered as a beau dressed for an assembly, and none are seen with the hair of its natural colour. The powder is a lime made from shells or coral; they generally carry it about them in a small gourd, and when they are hostilely disposed take a quantity of it in the hollow of the hand, from which, with a strong blast of the mouth, they blow it before them; and at a small distance it has exactly the appearance of firing gunpowder, and no doubt is meant as a token of defiance. Some of our people had it blown into their eyes. Captain H. conjectures, with good reason, that what captain Cook supposed he saw, on the coast of New Guinea, of fire and smoke issuing from a bamboo, was nothing more than the practice observed here.

The weapons used by these people are lances, either made of a hard wood like ebony, about ten feet long, or of bamboo pointed with hard wood; they have no throwing stick, but the lance is thrown by hand. They have also slings, from which they cast a round pebble, the size of a small fowl's egg, with great force and exactness; and a long unhandy kind of club. The only musical instrument among them is composed of several hollow reeds of different lengths fastened together.

Most of the natives chew the betle, and with it use the chenan and a leaf, as practised in the East Indies; by which their mouths appear red; and their teeth after a time become black.

Two English pointers, male and female, and a cock and hen were left behind, as presents.

Being again in distress for water, on the 11th of August they stood in for an island, called Hummock Island, in latitude  $5^{\circ} 27'$  north, longitude  $125^{\circ} 12'$  east; where they watered, and obtained some refreshments. Here was a raja, supported in his authority by the Dutch East India company: and by an unfortunate quarrel between the master of the ship and him, they were prevented from taking in a quantity of rice, and other necessaries.

The natives here have a great deal of the Malay both in appearance and disposition, and speak the same language as at Mindanao.

On the 27th of September they anchored in Batavia road, after a tedious and dangerous passage of twenty-six weeks; having seen a very considerable number of islands in their run.

At Batavia captain H. purchased the transport in which he had sailed from Port Jackson, to convey him with the other officers and crew of the *Sirius* to England. They sailed on the 40th of October; but about a week before their departure the  
sailors

sailors fell down fast with the Batavia fever, and several of them died. On the 17th of December they anchored in Table-bay, at the Cape of Good Hope, but were forced by a violent gale to run to sea again; and were obliged to be towed in at last by the boats of several English and other ships, which then happened to be in the bay.

On the 19th of January, 1792, they stretched out to sea; being obliged to have five men at sick quarters, who were too weakly to be taken on board. On the 4th of February they arrived at St. Helena, and on the 22d of April at Portsmouth.

The instructive communications of this able navigator are closed by a letter of his to the lords of the admiralty, on the best course that can be steered from New South Wales to Europe, founded on his own experience and observation.

The public are obliged to Sir Joseph Banks and Mr. Stephens, to whose charge lieutenant King had committed his journal, for allowing the free use of it, for the publication of such parts as might be supplementary to captain H.'s narrative. So much of it therefore is omitted as details only what has already been before the public.

Chapter eleven contains an account of lieutenant King's visit to Mr. de la Peyrouse, at Botany Bay, with a brief history of the French navigator's voyage and adventures.—Of his being sent to form a settlement on Norfolk Island—the discovery of an island—the difficulty in landing—clearing the ground, fixing the tents, erecting a store-house, sowing vegetables and various sorts of grain—general orders for the regulation of the settlement.

This little colony, which sailed from Port Jackson on February 15th, 1788, consisted only of twenty-three persons, under lieutenant King, who was appointed superintendant and commandant.

They found some resource in a few turtle, and abundance of cabbage-trees, otherwise they must have lived wholly on salt provisions. The wheat, which they sowed, was entirely devoured by rats.

Chapter twelve. The people employed in clearing the ground, in sawing timber, building huts, &c.—Rats and grub-worms devour every thing in the gardens.—Five out of six ewes die of the scab; two sows poisoned by eating something noxious in the woods.—Six persons poisoned by eating some reeds which had the appearance of beans: they were cured by oil.—They catch plenty of fish, but this is a supply not to be depended upon, because sometimes a boat cannot go out for a fortnight together. Pigeons were at first so tame, that they knocked them down with sticks, but afterwards they generally harboured about the tops of the pines. Parrots and hawks are numerous—quails and curlews plentiful, but shy.—Owls pronounce the word 'yaho' very distinctly. Many of the smaller birds have a most melodious note, and their plumage is very beautiful. Great resource

in sea-fowl that burrow in the ground.—Description of Arthur's Vale—plantations begun here by Mr. Altree, the surgeon—sugar-canes, orange-trees, and plantains set here, and a quantity of cotton-seeds sowed. At the beginning of June, only two months bread being left, they were reduced to short allowance. On the 26th of July, the Supply hove in sight, and brought provisions, tools, and seeds for the settlement, which could not be landed till the 5th of August. The day following, four men were unfortunately drowned, and on the 11th, the Supply set sail again, for Port Jackson.

The best idea our readers can have of the state of Norfolk Island at this time, will be from extracting the substance of lieut. King's answers to governor Phillip's queries. From the excellence of the soil, and the present appearances, the island will produce in two years, more than a sufficiency of grain, for the people now on it. There is no ground naturally clear. Two acres and an half have been sowed with barley; and there is one acre in garden ground: in September there will be an acre in indian corn and rice. With twenty more men, and wotnen in proportion, a little progress might be made in clearing and cultivating the ground. The flax-plant was found in great abundance, but the endeavours to manufacture it, were not yet successful. There is no place in which a vessel can ride with security. Anchorage however is good; and a harbour might be made, by cutting a channel through the reef. The cattle that remain are very thriving, and likely to do well: the leaves of trees and underwood afford ample food for animals; and the fern-tree, which is very plentiful, is good food for hogs. There are no animals natural to the island but rats, which have been numerous, but now are much thinned. Fish in great numbers, and of a large size, abound all round the island; and there are some turtle.

In October, heavy rains. Having lodged the barley, it was devoured by rats: and the indian corn suffered greatly from the grub-worm. On the 13th, the Golden-grove transport arrived with passengers, stores, and provisions. On the 15th, the people, consisting of Mr. Donovan, a midshipman of the Sirius, a serjeant, corporal, and five marines, two gardeners, twenty-one men, and eleven women convicts were landed. On this and the following day, the provisions and stores were also gotten on shore.

*Chapter thirteen.* The colony also received two sows, and fourteen young pigs; and a she-goat. A number of spars and planks were sent on board for Port Jackson.

Remarks on the navigation round this and the neighbouring islands.

The settlement now consisted of sixty-two persons, beside two children.

Nepean island is a mass of sand, held together by the surrounding cliffs, which are of a hard rock. The surface is covered with a coarse grass, and upwards of two-hundred very fine pines were found growing on it.

Phillip



Phillip Isle is covered with long grass that cuts like a knife, interspersed with brushwood. The soil is a light red earth, full of holes made by birds. A small valley runs the whole length of it, in which, and on some of the hills, a few pines grow, not more than one hundred and fifty in the whole. They found no fresh water on it.

On the 8th of December, the barley that was left by the rats and quails was housed; but it amounted only to ten bushels, whereas they had expected fifty. One grain yielded one hundred and sixteen ears. Garden vegetables thrived very well, and cabbages were cut weighing twenty-six pounds each. The grub-worm is a great and perpetual enemy to vegetables. The beginning of June, two hundred and sixty plants of wheat were transplanted; these were thrashed on the 15th of December, and produced three quarts of a very fine full grain. A plot of the convicts to seize the island discovered.

*Chapter fourteen.* On the 25th of February, 1789, it blew a violent hurricane. On the 2d of March the Supply arrived, with twenty-one men, and six women convicts, with three children, provision and stores, a bushel of potatoes, and some seed-wheat and barley. The number of persons now on the island was ninety-four. Frequent robberies were committed.

On the 2d of April, three quarters of an acre were sown with wheat; on the 6th, an acre in Arthur's vale; on the 13th three acres with four bushels; and on the 16th, three acres more in Arthur's vale. It was all up on the 21st; but in May it was found to be covered with incredible numbers of a small black caterpillar, which eat the whole close to the ground, and three acres never grew afterwards. These destructive insects disappeared on the 29th.

A storehouse erected, thirty feet long, by eighteen feet wide. By the 4th of June, the remainder of the wheat was shot out again, and had a very promising appearance. On the 11th, thirty pints of wheat were drilled into sixty roods of ground; and also eighteen pints of marrow-fat peas.

On the 13th the Supply arrived, with fourteen marines, under lieut. Cresswell, provision and stores.

On the 24th, two pecks of wheat were drilled into an acre of ground; and on the next day one acre and a quarter were sown with half a bushel broad-cast. On the 6th of July, eleven acres had a very promising appearance; and every vegetable in the gardens was in a thriving state. On the 28th, the last two bushels of seed-wheat were sown on two acres.

On the 24th of August, four acres in Arthur's-vale were planted with Indian corn: and the rats having dug up most of what had been planted in the gardens, it was re-placed.

In September, the grub-worms made great havock in the gardens; and these destructive vermin, with the depredations of the convicts, rendered the cultivation of gardens very discouraging. On the 16th, two acres were sown with Indian corn; and on the 28th, two hundred and forty sets of potatoes, planted on the 1st of June, were found to produce five bushels.

In

In October, the grub-worm totally destroyed one acre of Indian corn, and cut off every cabbage and other plant as it sprung up. On the 27th, fifteen acres of wheat were in ear; and seven acres of Indian corn were in a thriving state, though much thinned by the grub-worm: one acre of barley was also in ear, and the garden vegetables, were in great forwardness. The grub-worm had totally disappeared; but now myriads of paroquets were constantly destroying the wheat and garden productions.

November the 15th, about three quarters of an acre, which had been sown at the end of May with one bushel and an half of barley, were cut, and produced twenty-three bushels of a very fine full grain. The potatoes planted in September all ran to stalk, without forming any roots but fibres. Wheat harvest began on the 30th.

On the 3d of December, six men and eight women convicts were landed from the Supply, with some provision and stores.

Four acres of the wheat were damaged by heavy rains; and this was put by itself for immediate consumption. The wheat, though sown at different periods, was ripe nearly at the same time; but the last sown did not stock so well; that which was drilled suffered much from blighting winds. The best time for sowing wheat, is from the end of May to the middle of June.

On the 29th of January, 1790, the Supply brought twenty-two male convicts, and one female, without any provision; there being a scarcity at Port Jackson. The whole number now on the island, was 149.

*Chapter fifteen.* Arrival of the Sirius and Supply. The loss of the former. Lieutenant-Governor Ross takes the command, and lieutenant King leaves Norfolk Island. Description of the island.—From this we shall select such particulars as are interesting, and have not been given already. The form of it is a long square, six miles in length, and four in breadth; and it contains about 14,000 acres. Sydney-bay is in lat.  $29^{\circ} 4' 40''$  south, and in long.  $168^{\circ} 12'$  east of Greenwich. It is very hilly. Some of the valleys tolerably large, but most of them only deep hollows. Mount Pitt, the only remarkable hill, is 200 fathoms high. The cliffs round the coast 40 fathoms high, and quite perpendicular. The whole island is covered with a very thick forest, choaked with underwood. It is well supplied with many streams of very fine water; and on a hill near the middle of the island, there is a pond of fresh water, about half an acre. All the streams abound with very fine eels. From the sides of the cliffs to the summit of Mount Pitt is the finest soil, varying from a rich brown mould to a light red earth. The air is very wholesome. There are only five sorts of timber trees, viz. the pine; a wood resembling the live oak; a yellow wood; a hard black wood; and a wood resembling beech. The pine is very useful in building, and seems to be durable. The spring is perceptible in August, but the trees are in a constant succession of flowering and fruiting the year round. In summer the heat is excessive. All the grain and European plants seeded in December. From February to August may be called the rainy season.



season. The winter, from April to July, is very pleasant; there is never any frost, but when the S. W. winds blow the air is raw and cold. The settlement is formed in Sydney-bay on the south side of the island. The proper time for sowing wheat or barley is from May to August. Wheat produced more than twenty fold: a bushel and half of seed are sufficient for an acre newly broken up. Two bushels of barley sown in May, on an acre, yielded twenty-four bushels. Indian corn should be planted from June until August, and is the best grain to cultivate, on account of the little trouble attending its growth, and the preparing it for food. The sugar-cane grows very strong. Vines, orange and lemon trees are in a thriving state. Banana trees, no doubt, will thrive well. The potatoe flourishes amazingly, and two crops a year may be obtained with ease. Cabbages weigh from ten to twenty-seven pounds: melons and pumpkins also grow very fine. Rice has been sown twice, but the S. E. winds blighted a great part of it: that which escaped the blight yielded a great increase. The author apprehends, that the island is capable of maintaining at least one hundred families, in all the necessaries of life, except clothing; which it will also furnish, when they have learnt the art of manufacturing the flax plant. The want of a safe harbour is a great inconvenience; and the vast quantity of coral rocks render anchorage very unsafe. The number of inhabitants when lieut. King left the island was 498. Wheat from 250 to 300 bushels. Barley six bushels. Indian corn 130 to 140 bushels. Potatoes one acre. Hogs 26, beside private property. He sailed on the 24th of March, and arrived at Port Jackson on the 4th of April.

This chapter concludes with the state in which lieut. King found the colony on his return; some account of the manners and customs of the natives in New South Wales; and a vocabulary of the language.

We have given the substance of lieut. King's account of Norfolk Island very much at large, because it contains the first establishment of an infant colony, and all the difficulties necessarily attendant upon it, at so great a distance from any resources whatever, except those which they have within themselves. The account before given from captain Hunter's journal takes up the subject from the point where lieut. King leaves off.

*Chapter sixteen.* Lieut. King's return to England by Batavia, the Isle of France, &c. He set sail on the 17th of April, 1790; anchored in Batavia road the 6th of July; and arrived in England December the 20th. He discovered an island in lat.  $1^{\circ} 39'$  south, long.  $150^{\circ} 31'$  east, well inhabited, which he called Tench's island; and another to the north-west of it, which he named Prince William Henry's island; beside others of little consequence.

Here ends lieut. King's journal. The following narrative is taken from the official dispatches of governor Phillip, and forms  
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a continuation of the history of the people and country under his charge, to the close of the year 1791.

*Chapter seventeen.* The Lady Juliana transport, which sailed from England in September, 1789, arrived at Port Jackson on the 3d of June, 1790, bringing supplies from England. By the unfortunate loss of the Guardian, the settlement was thrown back very much: the governor having been obliged to send away the Sirius, give up labour, and kill the greater part of the live stock, for want of the supplies she was bringing out.

The settlers have little to apprehend from the natives, except the destroying of stray cattle, and attacking such as go out to rob them of their spears, and of the few articles they possess, which is done too frequently. They are perfectly sensible of the great superiority of fire-arms, and are now seldom seen near the settlement.

The situation of Port Jackson is found to be very advantageous; for being between two harbours, if a ship fall in with the coast in bad weather, a few miles either to the north or south, she can find immediate shelter.

The impossibility of conveying stores and provisions for any distance in land, obliged the governor to mark out the first township near Rose-hill, where there is a considerable extent of good land. Captain Hunter, it must be observed, does not speak very favourably of the soil, even here, where it is said to be the best. The governor having made an experiment with an industrious convict, found that he might support himself tolerably well by his labour, after eighteen months.

The Neptune, Surprise, and Scarborough transports arrived at the end of June, 1790, with about six hundred casks of beef and pork from the Guardian, and nineteen convicts.

There is reason to hope, that after two years from July, 1790, the settlement would not want any farther supply of flour. How long a regular supply of beef and pork would be necessary, depended on their quantity of live stock, and on its increase. A town was now laid out at Rose-hill, of which the principal street was to be occupied by the convicts: the huts at one hundred feet from each other, each to contain ten convicts. Having good gardens to cultivate, and frequent opportunities to exchange vegetables for little necessaries which the stores do not furnish, they will feel the benefits which they may draw from industry.

*Chapter eighteen.* Excursion into the country, in which governor Phillip is wounded with a spear, as was before related. A shoal of fish, extending as far as the eye could reach. As many were caught at two hands with the seine, as served the whole settlement; there were not less than three thousand, weighing five pounds each, on an average. Five convicts effect their escape in a boat. The natives begin to visit the settlement freely.

*Chapter nineteen.* Several fruits in season in November. Three berries have so insipid a taste, that they are held in very little estimation. One of them is what captain Cook calls a cherry. An acid berry, about the size of a currant; very pleasant, and a good antiscorbutic. Another of a transparent red colour,

colour, the same size, but shaped like a heart, and having an agreeable flavour. A nut which had violent effects on those who ate it unprepared; soaked in water for seven or eight days, and then roasted, it is nearly as good as a chesnut.

Account of the manners of the natives; and some disputes with them.

On the 27th of December, the thermometer stood at 102° in the shade.

*Chapter twenty.* Depredations and insolence of the natives. Number of deaths in the colony during the year 1790 was one hundred and fifty-six. Great bats appear in immense numbers; it was supposed that more than twenty thousand were seen in the space of one mile.

*Chapter twenty-one.* The governor, with a party, makes an excursion into the country, which is in general found to be very barren, though full of fine trees, which the natives are very expert in climbing. They procure their food chiefly by that means and hunting.

The greater part of the live stock having been killed in 1790, when they were distressed for provision; in April, 1791, a hen that laid eggs sold for twenty shillings; pork was a shilling the pound, and a roasting pig sold for ten shillings.

*Chapter twenty-two.* A second excursion. The buildings at Rose-hill being carried on so far (in June, 1791,) as to form part of a regular town between that and the landing-place: the governor named it *Parramatta*, the name by which the natives called the spot itself. Grants of land were now given to those who became settlers; thirty acres to one, one hundred and forty to a second, and sixty acres each, to two others. A barter established with the natives, of fish, for bread, rice, and vegetables.

On the 9th of July, the *Mary Ann* transport arrived at Port Jackson, with one hundred and forty-one women convicts, and six children, almost all in health: she brought some stores, and nine months provision for the women.

Twenty-seven convicts, the time for which they were sentenced being expired, were admitted as settlers, and had thirty acres granted to each single man, fifty to such as were married, and ten for every child. They were clothed and supported for eighteen months; had tools, implements of husbandry, seeds and grain to sow the ground for the first year, and two young sow pigs.

On the 1st of August, the *Matilda* transport anchored at Sydney, with clothing, provision, and two hundred and five male convicts. These were sickly, and twenty-four had died in the passage. An ensign, with twenty privates, were on board this vessel.

The *Mary Ann* was sent (August 8,) to Norfolk Island, with stores, provision, one hundred and thirty-three male, and one female convict, a non-commissioned officer, and eleven privates.

The *Atlantic*, lieut. Bowen, arrived on the 20th of August. She brought a serjeant and seventeen privates, provision, stores, and two hundred and two male convicts. Lieut. Bowen stood in to a bay on the coast, which is described as a good harbour.

The

The Salamander arrived the following day, with twelve private soldiers, and one hundred and fifty-four male convicts, with stores and provision. Most of the convicts were in a weak, emaciated state, and complained that proper attention had not been paid to them.

On the 28th of August the William and Ann transport anchored in the cove. She brought stores and provision, with a serjeant and thirteen privates, and several of their wives and children; also, one hundred and eighty male convicts.

On the 4th of September, the Salamander sailed for Norfolk Island, with one hundred and sixty male convicts, stores, provision, two non-commissioned officers, and eleven privates.

*Chapter twenty-three.* On the 21st of September, 1791, the Gorgon, captain John Parker, came into harbour. She had received on board as much of the Guardian's cargo as she could stow, together with three bulls, twenty-three cows, four rams, sixty-two ewes, and one boar. Captain King returned in this ship, with a commission as lieut. governor of Norfolk Island. The chaplain of the New South Wales corps, and several appointed to civil employments came out likewise in the Gorgon. The bulls all died, and several of the other cattle. Seed, and a variety of fruit-trees in good condition were received by this ship; and thirty male convicts assisted in working her.

On the 26th of September, the Queen transport arrived from Ireland with provision, one hundred and twenty-six male, and twenty-one female convicts. The Active arrived the same day with provision, and one hundred and fifty-four male convicts. Both these ships brought a part of the Guardian's cargo, and detachments from the New South Wales corps.

The Albemarle arrived on the 13th of October. She brought out twenty-three soldiers, with one woman, two hundred and fifty male, and six female convicts, one free woman, a convict's wife, and one child. The convicts, during the passage, attempted to seize on the ship. The Britannia came in the same day, with thirteen soldiers, seven women, and three children, and one hundred and twenty-nine male convicts. The Admiral Barrington arrived on the 16th, with a captain, three non-commissioned officers, and twenty-four privates, with two hundred and sixty-four male convicts; four women came out with their husbands, and two children. The whole number of convicts was one thousand six hundred and ninety-five males, sixty-eight females, and eleven children; of whom, one hundred and ninety-four males, four females, and one child, died on the passage.

The colony not having many months provision, the governor took the Atlantic into the service, as a naval transport. She was dispatched to Norfolk Island, with the lieut. governor, some marines, settlers, convicts, provision and stores; thence to proceed to Calcutta, for provision.

A whale fishery is established on the coast of New South Wales.

The



The following parcels of land were in cultivation at Parramatta, in November, 1791.

Acres.	Roods.	Perches.	
351	2	5	in maïse.
44	1	8	wheat.
6	1	30	barley.
1	0	0	oats.
2	0	3	potatoes.
4	2	0	not cultivated, but cleared.
4	2	15	mostly planted with vines.
6	0	0	the governor's garden, partly sown with wheat and maïse.
80	0	0	garden-ground, belonging to individuals.
17	0	0	land in cultivation by the New South Wales corps.
150	0	0	cleared and to be sown with turnips.
91	3	2	ground in cultivation by settlers.
28	0	0	ground in cultivation by the officers civil and military.
134	0	0	enclosed, and the timber thinned for feeding cattle.

The soil in most places is remarkably good, and the ground that has been the longest in cultivation bears the best crops.

Of the last convicts, there were great numbers of the worst characters, particularly amongst those who came from Ireland. Some of them had formed an idea, that by going along the coast they could reach some Chinese settlements; others, that they should find a people one hundred and fifty miles to the north, where they would be free. These silly notions made several of them straggle for a time, till ineffectual efforts convinced them at last of the vanity of their attempts.

Here closes the journal of governor Phillip, containing the latest accounts from New South Wales, received by the Gorgon, that left Port Jackson in December, 1791.

Chapter twenty-four contains the journal of lieut. Ball, [of the Supply, giving an account of a voyage from Port Jackson, by cape Horn, made in a shorter time than had ever been performed by any other vessel. She sailed on the 26th of November, 1791, and arrived off the Lizard, on the 20th of April, 1792.

The chapter closes with some particulars respecting Norfolk Island, dated the 29th of December, 1791. About one thousand bushels of wheat were gotten in by the 10th of December. The Indian corn had suffered by dry hot weather. A new store-house and gaol were built. A good road was made to the landing-rock in Cascade Bay. Ten settlers, who had belonged to the Sirius, were doing exceedingly well; but great part of the marine settlers had been extremely troublesome. Forty convict settlers were all doing well, and were quiet, attentive, and orderly. The whole number was eighty. A quantity of coral, and other testaceous substances, with different kinds of stones, were

were burnt forty-eight hours, and produced a very fine white lime.

The wreck of the *Sirius* went to pieces on the first of January, 1792, and every thing possible was saved out of her.

By the 15th, two hundred and sixty bushels of Indian corn were gathered; a number of acres were then in different states of growth, which were likely to yield about three hundred bushels more. The wheat thrashed well, and yielded plentifully. The granary was finished, and every endeavour was used to keep the weevil out of it.

This volume is handsomely printed, and it is ornamented with seventeen plates, well engraved. They are as follows:

1. The portrait of the author, captain Hunter, facing the title.
2. A vignette, in the title page, describing a meeting of our people with a female native and child, whom they found in a miserable condition, just recovered from the small-pox.
3. A map of New South Wales.
4. A view of the settlement on Sydney Cove.
5. The southern hemisphere, showing the track of the *Sirius*.
6. A chart of Botany Bay, Port Jackson, and Broken Bay, with the coast and soundings.
7. View at Rose Hill.
8. A man at Lord Howe's Groupe.
9. A man of the Duke of York's Island.
10. Canoes of the same island.
11. Canoes of the admiralty isles.
12. Track of the *Waaksamheyd* transport.
13. A plan of Norfolk Island.
14. A family of New South Wales.
- 15, 16, 17. Three non-descript shells of New South Wales.

M. T.

ART. II. *Travels through Switzerland, Italy, Sicily, the Greek Islands, to Constantinople; through part of Greece, Ragusa, and the Dalmatian Isles.* In a Series of Letters to Pennoyre Watkins, Esq. from Thomas Watkins, A. M. in the Years 1787, 1788, 1789. In two vols. 8vo. Price 12s. in Boards. Cadell. 1792.

It is, doubtless, no sufficient reason for not publishing minutes of a tour through any country, that it has been before repeatedly described by other travellers, or that their accounts have been written with a degree of ability and elegance, which have rendered them exceedingly popular. But a traveller who pursues the track which has already been beaten by Addison, Brydone, Coxe, Moore, Montague, and many other celebrated writers of travels, certainly appears under some disadvantage before the public, to report his adventures, observations, and reflections. Thus circumstanced, he should be well assured that he has entered upon his travels with such a previous stock of philosophy, learning, and taste, as qualifies him to observe with a discriminating eye the various objects which pass before him, and to communicate remarks of sufficient originality and ingenuity to merit public attention;

attention; or at least, he should be conscious of possessing such talents, for lively or humourous description, for sentimental reflection, and other species of good writing, as may enable him to afford his readers elegant entertainment.

Though we cannot peremptorily pronounce the author of the present work possessed of all the qualifications requisite for becoming a successful rival to the celebrated writers who have preceded him, we are by no means inclined to pass a censure upon these travels. If the work must not be ranked in the first class, for depth of reflection, distinctness of description, vivacity of remark, or elegance of diction, the author relates, in a natural and easy way, many amusing, and some interesting incidents; gives an agreeable representation of natural scenes, of works of art, and of men and manners; occasionally introduces, from various sources, sundry particulars respecting the history and present state of the countries through which he passes; and makes many pertinent references and allusions to the Greek and Roman classics.

Mr. W. commences his tour from Geneva. He describes the city and vicinity, gives an outline of its history, and its ancient and present government, and makes some observations on its commerce and revenue, and on the manners of its inhabitants. On the latter topic he writes as follows. P. 18. VOL. I.

‘It is a very general and a very just observation, that the inhabitants of Geneva are remarkably well informed, which is in consequence of the care taken of their education, and their frequent intercourse with foreigners. I found many of the second order of citizens, who had been in London, and were intimately acquainted with our customs and constitution. For the purpose of seeing the real genius of the people, I have frequently visited the coffee-houses of the mechanics, and there heard conversations both moral and political, that have surprized and pleased me beyond measure. They seem to pique themselves very much on speaking with propriety, and I could not but observe, that in these conversations they exerted themselves the more when an Englishman was present; to whom they would tacitly appeal on the justice of their argument, by a look that sufficiently indicated their meaning. I know no people on the continent so ingenious, particularly as draughtsmen; indeed, this is in great measure the effect of a public drawing-school, in which sixty or seventy scholars are continually instructed, and rewarded with different medals, according to their degrees of merit. Having said so much of the male inhabitants, you would suppose me to have assumed the cowl of St. Francis, if I were not to mention the other sex, particularly when so interesting as the females of Geneva. The Bourgeoises are the prettiest women I know of their condition, and their dress is peculiarly elegant and simple. Last Sunday evening we walked out to admire the scenery of the lake, but were met by so many charming faces, that I am sure we saw as little of the prospect, as if we had remained in our apartments at the inn.

‘They estimate the population of the city at 22,200 souls. Adieu.’  
Some idea may be formed of this writer's manner of thinking, from the following extract of a letter from Lausanne. P. 144, VOL. I.

VOL. XV.

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The morning of our departure for Yverdon, we got into a carriage for the first time since we had been in Switzerland, and ascended until we came within a few miles of Lausanne. From the summit of the hill we looked over the lake of Geneva and the surrounding country, which is as beautiful as language can describe, or imagination conceive it. The view from this town is equally fine, though it stands rather lower; but the interior ill accords with its situation, being ill built, and so uneven, that there is not a street in it in which the passenger does not mount or descend. Out of the town is a public walk under an avenue of large trees, which commands the lake: the mountains of Faucigny: the Pays de Vaud: Mount Jura: and the Alps of Savoy. We dedicated the first day of our arrival to the English newspapers, which we found in a literary coffee-house; and never I believe were two creatures happier in the discovery. The second we descended to the little village of Ouchy, or Port of Lausanne, which lies directly under it on the edge of the lake. Having hired a boat we were carried over to Miellierie, in the duchy of Chablais, a part of his Sardinian majesty's dominions; and oh! what a sudden transition from opulence to poverty, from liberty to slavery, from happiness to misery! never were the effects of different governments more apparent in two nations than in these on the opposite sides of the lake. On that of Switzerland, nothing meets the eye but what gladdens the heart of the philanthropist; on that of Chablais, nothing but what pains it. Here it is that philosophy may contemplate the opposite consequences of a free and despotic government; and hail liberty, as next to health, the chief blessing that the great Author of Nature can bestow. The more I see the more I am enamoured of her. Miellierie is a beggarly village that lies along a narrow slip of land between the lake and rocks behind it, which seem as it were to lean upon and force it into the water. The inhabitants are as wretched as idleness, poverty, and superstition can make them. Their dependence for food being upon the lake, I cannot conceive how they exist in a severe winter, when the surface of it is a continued sheet of ice. This place is generally visited for the purpose of seeing Lausanne and the opposite shore to advantage, particularly, as the whole of this country has been so pleasingly painted by the lively description of Rousseau in his *Nouvelle Heloise*; from the rocks of Miellierie St. Prieux wrote that letter to his Julia which is so generally admired as descriptive of the many sensations that arise in the breast of an absent lover on seeing, or thinking he sees, the distant habitation of his mistress; and which Rousseau himself considered as the master-piece of the whole: I don't know what your sentiments may be of this novel, but I am so unfashionable as to think it extremely exceptionable, and the characters out of nature, particularly that of Julia the heroine; nevertheless I am charmed with the style and language, which unite two qualities seldom found in similar compositions of the French language, sweetness and energy. Rousseau has done more in this respect, than Marmontel, De la Fontaine, or even Voltaire *in prose*.

Passing with our traveller over the Alps, through Savoy and Piedmont, into Italy, in which part of the tour we find little that arrests our attention, we accompany him to Genoa, where he gives a lively repre-

representation of the national character, in the following anecdote.  
P. 245, VOL. I.

‘Some months ago two Venetians (whose countrymen and the Genoese still keep up that inveterate hatred to each other, which distinguished their ancestors) were present at an Osteria, or wine house, where the conversation of the company arose, not as it would in England, on politics or pleasure, but upon the merits of St. John, the protector of Genoa, who, it was asserted, had worked innumerable miracles, and was the greatest of all saints. If nature be so much the parent of patriotism, as to create in us an affection for those minuter objects in our native land, which the citizens of the world would regard with an eye of indifference, how much more powerfully must she operate on our passions, when we remember that on which the prosperity of our country is supposed to depend? The two Venetians were precisely in this predicament. They probably knew as little of St. John, as they did of St. Denis; but St. Mark was the guardian of Venice, and consequently their all in all. Resolved therefore to maintain his honour in opposition to this provoking eulogium of the Genoese on their patron, one of them observed, that the bones of his saint had worked more miracles, *particularly in healing diseases*, than all the apostles and saints; that in heaven he was next in rank to the Virgin and popes, and as much superior to their St. John, as the patriarch of Venice was to the archbishop of Genoa. To prevent any reply to this, he and his friend left the room, but were soon followed by one of the company, who had the honour of bearing the great cross of a religious order in their church processions. This desperate enthusiast on overtaking, stabbed the Venetian, who had spoken, to the heart, crying out with the blow, *Ti manda questo San Giovane che ti guariano le ossa di San Marco.*\* His friend astonished at a deed so bloody (tho’ an Italian) applied to a magistrate for justice, who, having heard the particulars, told him, that had a Venetian murdered a Genoese in Venice, no notice would have been taken of it, but that his complaint would probably be considered in a few days;—and so indeed it was, even sooner than he had promised, for early the next morning he too was found assassinated at the door of his lodgings, and the bearer of the great cross still maintains his post of honour. Now determine on the character of a people, among whom such crimes are committed with impunity.’

In addition to this reflection of the author’s, we must ask, Do not facts of this kind fully prove, that the state of Genoa, though a republic, stands greatly in need of renovation?

That murder is regarded as a slight offence in Italy, strongly appears from the manner in which murderers are treated at Bologna.  
P. 281, VOL. I.

‘One morning we happened to be present at the infliction of a punishment that was quite new to us. I believe they call it *la corda*; it is as follows:

‘A large pulley is fixed to an iron crane, about 40 feet high, which projects from the side of a house. Over this pulley is a rope, to which the culprit’s wrists (being previously tied together behind

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\* ‘St. John sends thee this, that the bones of St. Mark may heal thee.’



him) are fastened. He is then drawn up slowly to a certain height, when the rope being suddenly loosened, he drops within a few feet of the ground. This torture is repeated a second and a third time, the last fall being made higher than that preceding it; but the second never fails of producing the desired effect, that is, of dislocating the shoulder bones. On enquiry into the offence of the criminal whom we saw, I was told that he had undergone the punishment three times in seven months, for giving the *coltellata*, or stab, with a knife to three different persons, the last of whom was his mother. Had he robbed the church he would have been burnt alive.'

Our traveller having visited most of the principal cities in Italy, and remarked their paintings, public buildings, &c. at length arrives at Rome, and distinctly surveys its remains of antiquity, paintings, and modern buildings. We select the account of Raphael's school of Athens. P. 335, VOL. I.

'The next thing I shall mention to you is what I most admire and most lament—the mouldering fresco-paintings of Raphael. In the principal court yard of the vatican are three galleries, one above another; in the lowest of which the conclaves are held. Their cielings are painted from the designs of this unequalled master, and some parts he painted himself. From the second we entered a suite of apartments, three of which were *for the most part* done by him, and one *entirely*; wherein we saw his school of Athens; which, though in decay, is still the best picture in the world—Do you recollect my mention of its cartoon in the Boromean museum at Milan? I have often, on viewing the works of these great painters, lamented, that their genius should, from the narrow and bigot temper of their own times, be entirely confined to religious subjects, and wished much to see the illustrious actions of antiquity represented by their pencils. The school of Athens, in great measure, falls under this idea; for although Raphael, without any regard to time or place, has here introduced philosophers, &c. who lived in different centuries and countries, yet, the subject is, in my humble opinion, as interesting as can be chosen. The scene is in a portico at Athens, up a few steps, in the center of which are two of the most venerable and majestic figures I ever saw, intended for Plato and Aristotle, who are reasoning before their respective disciples, ranged on each side of them, and listening with all the attention and wonder that such profound wisdom and elegance would naturally create. Near this group are Socrates and Alcibiades; the former seems to be winding up his arguments to a conclusion, and the latter charmed and convinced by their simplicity and truth. Sitting on the steps, and alone, is the Cynic Diogenes, intent upon a book before him; and besides these, we discover Periander, Pythagoras, Zoroaster, Empedocles, and many other great men, all in employments or attitudes descriptive of what they professed and taught. As disciples, Raphael has represented Ferdinand the 2<sup>d</sup>, duke of Milan, and Francis di Rovere duke d'Urbino, together with his master Pietro Perugino, and himself. In his face, though simple, I perceived traits of that divine genius which he possessed. Day after day have I examined this picture, and tried to discover some defective part, but in vain; every thing I see in it convinces me that nothing of the kind was ever superior, nor I believe equal, since the age of Pericles.'



Having given our readers a sufficient number of extracts from this work, to enable them to form a judgment of the author's talents, as an instructive and entertaining traveller, we must refer them to the work itself for much amusement from his account of Sicily, Venice, Greece, and Constantinople, and shall only add a curious instance of Turkish fanaticism. VOL. II. P. 255.

Violent action in divine worship is not I perceive peculiar to our extravagant sectaries of England, for I was lately present at a scene that Bedlam itself could not outdo. I entered a large apartment where four dervises were seated upon carpets with their backs to a wall, on which were suspended many iron instruments of torture. Before these men in the centre of the circle formed by the spectators, were three others in the same attitude, and behind them stood four more. Upon a signal given by the principal they began to pray aloud and to turn quickly round repeating with uncommon emphasis certain portions of the Alcoran, among which I could distinguish the names of Mahomet, Ali, Osmin, Mustapha, &c. Their dresses were close woollen jackets and long petticoats, which having weights at the end formed, as they continued turning, a wide circle. This giddy motion seemed to have no effect upon them during the first half hour, though assisted by forcibly beating their feet against the floor and working their heads about with the most frantic violence. At length some of them began to see visions, when (though their prayers had been before *vociferated*) sudden acclamations still louder burst from them, and in this paroxysm of real or affected enthusiasm, they threw themselves out of their circle upon the ground and were immediately assisted by a religious attendant, who after squeezing their joints and rubbing the palms of their hands whispered something in their ear which operated like a charm; for instantly the person thus treated sprang up with redoubled impetuosity, and was with the greatest difficulty holden by his attendant. However his fervor soon subsided and he appeared faint and languid as if just recovered from a fit. Immediately afterwards, hot irons were brought to the superior Dervis, who having charmed them by his touch to prevent the common effect of burning, or at least pretended to it, delivered them to the others by whom they were received with apparent joy, and being instantly applied to their mouths, licked and holden between their teeth until forced from them by the attendants. Thus ended this Mahometan pantomime, this comedy of fanaticism and miracle.

These volumes, especially the first, are incorrectly printed, but the author has added a large list of errata.

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#### CHARACTERS. ANECDOTES.

ART. III. *Marcus Flaminius; or a View of the military, political, and social Life of the Romans: in a Series of Letters, from a Patrician to his Friend, in the Year 762; from the foundation of Rome, to the Year 769.* By E. Cornelia Knight. In two Volumes, 8vo. 755 p. Price 10s. 6d. Dilly. 1792.

THOUGH historical and fictitious writing have their peculiar provinces, which it may commonly be convenient to preserve distinct

ting from each other, it would be too rigorous to lay it down as an universal law, that they ought never to be united. As poetry borrows from history its chief power of affecting the passions, so history, in its turn, may call in the aid of poetry and fiction, to create pleasing and interesting associations, by means of which, real facts and incidents may make a deeper impression upon the memory and the heart. History should, it is true, at first be taught in the form of plain and simple narrative; and nothing should be combined with these elementary lessons, which would expose the learner to the hazard of mistaking fiction for reality. But, this precaution being taken, and a tolerable foundation of general historical knowledge being laid, an alliance between memory and fancy may be safely hazarded, and, under judicious regulation, may be useful. Who can doubt that to a reader already possessed of a general acquaintance with the early history of Greece, the Iliad of Homer will afford a more minute, correct, and impressive view of the real characters, customs, and manners of the times, concerning which he wrote, than can be gained by any other means? After the history of England has been read, it cannot be questioned, that the historical plays of Shakespeare may be perused with advantage, even as historical commentaries and illustrations. But the most decisive proof of the possibility of an advantageous union of history and fiction we have in that highly instructive, as well as entertaining work, the Travels of the Younger Anacharsis.

It was probably the success of this work, which suggested to the author of the performance now before us the idea of sketching, in a fictitious narrative, the military, political, and social life of the Romans. The commencement of the Roman empire is chosen as the period most interesting to the politician, the moralist, the man of learning, and the artist; and the letters are intended to give an idea of the state of Rome, and its inhabitants, during the latter years of Augustus, and the first year of his successor. Minute details are avoided, and local descriptions are only introduced to elucidate sentiments and events. For most of the characters brought into the narrative the reader is referred to the historians of those times, and particularly to the annals of Tacitus.

Marcus Quintius Flaminius, the hero of the piece, is a young officer, who served with Varus in his unfortunate expedition into Germany, and, among the wounded, in the fatal battle of Teutoburgium, fell into the hands of the Cherusicans. Remaining a long time in their country, he is placed in different situations, and passes through various scenes, which at once give the writer an opportunity of displaying her talent for fictitious narrative, and of introducing several particulars respecting the customs, manners, and sentiments of the ancient Germans, chiefly taken from Tacitus's treatise *de Moribus Germanorum*. Philocles, a Grecian slave, whose talents and address enable him to obtain his freedom, becomes the preceptor and the oracle of the Cherusicans. He recites a beautiful fable on adulation, in reply to the question, What is the usual song of the Syrens? which we refrain from copying, only on account of its length. Flaminius,  
fading

finding means to escape, and joining the army of Germanicus, accompanies him in his expedition against Arminius. Here the principal events and characters are taken from the first and second books of the Annals of Tacitus, though not without considerable enlargement and variation. Flaminius accompanying Germanicus through Gaul to Rome, the country through which they passed is described with happy allusions to several particulars mentioned by ancient writers. The account of Flaminius's arrival at Rome, and his reflections on objects and persons, after his long absence, are highly interesting. We shall extract his remarks on the change in the state of Rome after the accession of Tiberius to the imperial power.

VOL. I. P. 341.—‘The face of Rome appears to me totally changed since Tiberius has been master of the empire; though he will not suffer himself to be addressed with servile adulation, or affected humility, he expects that not only his commands, but even his desires should be obeyed with the most punctual compliance. By a refinement of tyranny, he would have slavish obsequiousness appear the dictate of inclination. The severity of his manners spreads a gloom over all the inhabitants of this city, particularly over those who are obliged more nearly to approach him. How courteous and popular was Augustus! his tenderness to his friends and connexions made his private character infinitely amiable, and the share he took in all public amusements endeared him to the people. Such a prince was born to cast a veil over the loss of liberty, and over the scenes that preceded his exaltation. But Tiberius is naturally of a haughty and sullen temper, ever dissatisfied with himself and others; while he was a subject, still complaining of neglect, and, since he has been a prince, always suspicious of treason. It cannot be denied that he has behaved with intrepidity on many occasions, which must have been owing to the force of example and discipline, for he is now addicted to the emptiest and most absurd terrors. Poison and forcery continually haunt his imagination, and whenever he perceives a distant cloud that foretels a tempest, he binds round his temples a crown of laurel, in the supposition that it will protect him from the lightning, taking a poetical allusion in the literal sense. Perpetually in dread of imaginary beings, and placing little confidence in a superior power, he is perhaps the most wretched inhabitant of his empire; and the splendor and virtues of his family are the torment of his life. The dignity of his mother, and the honours conferred on her by the senate; the youth and distinctions of even his own son Drusus; but, above all, the far superior and heroic qualities of Germanicus, incessantly torture him with envy, distrust, and apprehension. Sejanus alone approaches him with ease and familiarity, though probably there is between them neither affection nor confidence. Tiberius fears death; and his minister recommends continual precautions against open or secret attempts, always on the watch to discover or invent them. As præfect of the prætorian cohorts, he affects to maintain the ancient discipline and severity of manners, by forming a regular camp, where they are



to be united in a body, instead of being dispersed, as at present, throughout Rome. Under pretence of removing them from the dissipation and allurements of the city, he seems to have conceived the design of converting them into a standing army for the support of the emperor, or more probably for his own ambitious views: he is the enemy of all the Cæsarian family, and has the art of sowing dissention among them: to sum up all, he is a bold, skilful, and willing agent of despotism.

‘The court is divided into parties: female jealousies foment the discord, and the most trifling circumstances produce implacable enmities. Germanicus and Drusus, alone unshaken in their friendship, beyond the reach of calumny and insinuation, afford the most shining example of union and concord. The irreproachable conduct of Agrippina, her numerous and blooming offspring, and her immediate descent from Augustus, give her many advantages in the eyes of the Roman people over Livia, who has in her favour the influence of Sejanus and his party. This is particularly disgusting to Drusus: he often, though in vain, exhorts her to break off all intercourse with them, while domestic happiness flies far from his mansion: he deserves a better fate, for the youthful irregularities of his conduct are greatly to be attributed to the dissention and disquietude he experiences at home.

‘Nothing can be more repugnant to my disposition than to be a witness of these scenes; my attachment to Germanicus, and regard for your friend, must influence me to interest myself in all that relates to them. but petty strife, groundless animosity, or slanderous suggestion, are so odious to my nature, that I would seek the woods and caverns of Germany to avoid them.’

The relation of an interview between Flaminius and Livy the historian, and a description of the triumph of Germanicus, and of a magnificent banquet given by Drusus, close the first volume.

The second volume relates Flaminius’s successful attempt to restore to his country his uncle Valerius, whom the jealousy of Sejanus had driven into exile; and the rise, progress, and happy termination of his passion for Valeria. This volume has less historical matter than the former; but the fictitious parts are well imagined, and executed with a due attention to probability. The journey, which is undertaken by Flaminius in search of his uncle, affords the author an opportunity of introducing several pleasing descriptions. On his return to Rome, Flaminius introduces his friend Sigismar, the son of Cariovaldas, to Germanicus, and they visit the palatine library together.

VOL. II. P. 131. ‘I introduced Sigismar to him this morning, and nothing can exceed the demonstrations of esteem with which he received him. Soon after our entrance we were surprised with the voice of repeated acclamations, and, on enquiry, found it proceeded from the Palatine library, where the lovers of literature were assembled to hear a new poetical composition. Germanicus proposed that we should increase the number of auditors, as Sigismar expressed the greatest curiosity to be present at a meeting of this nature. He was struck with the magnificence  
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of the portico, and the statues of the Belides, placed alternately between the columns. The crowd was immense, and Germanicus repented of his proposal, when he discovered that the poet was celebrating his victories on the banks of the Visurgis. He is naturally averse to hear his own praises, and his delicacy was alarmed lest any expression might wound my Cheruscan friend: however, he considered that, by withdrawing himself abruptly, he would disturb the assembly, and mortify the poet; but, happily, this last had sufficient judgment to avoid in his composition those reflections on a vanquished enemy, which are not only illiberal in themselves, but injurious to the glory of the conqueror. The grammarian Apion, who was present, joined warmly in the vociferous applause; but took notice, to those who stood round him, of many words and sentences which he condemned as improper, or negligent. Germanicus was displeased at a liberty which appeared to him injudicious, as it could not be authorised by critical knowledge. Apion, an Egyptian, can hardly be a competent judge of the elegance of our language; and I was myself disgusted at his censures, which were trivial and pedantic; but I could not help remarking to Cæsar, that such were the natural consequences of these assemblies. When Atinius Pollio introduced the custom of reading literary performances in public, he gratified his own vanity, which seems to have been excessive; but experience must have convinced us, that he rendered little service to the learned world. Before these establishments were known, we had far greater poets than we can now boast. Virgil, Horace, and Varius, read their works to a few select friends, whose candour and judgment were unquestionable; they availed themselves of their criticism, and were not vain of their approbation. Though Pollio was amongst the number of their learned protectors, we know that they disapproved of his ideas in this respect, and foresaw the effects of them. Our present men of letters are applauded in public, and ridiculed in private. Misled by the acclamations, which they interpret as the voice of sincere approbation; they do not reflect that such literary meetings are too numerous to be instructive, and that self-confidence is the only quality which they tend to inspire. After the poem was ended, Germanicus conducted Sigismar through the library, and shewed him the innumerable volumes that compose this interesting collection; a gift worthy of Augustus to the Roman people. The Cheruscan was astonished at the splendid appearance of the temple of Apollo, and the majestic beauty of the Pythian Divinity; the graceful attitude, the flowing drapery, and the air of poetic inspiration, with which he strikes the lyre, made a singular impression on my friend. He observed on the harp a small figure of Marsyas, in basso-relief, and asked me why so great an artist, as Scopas, should have singled out the most unworthy triumph of Apollo for the decoration of so excellent a performance. I endeavoured to account for it as an emblem of severe justice, and as a warning against presumptuous vanity; and it is highly probable that some reason of this sort induced  
our

our ancestors to place, at the entrance of the Forum, a statue of the same Marfyas, which disgusts me whenever I pass that way.

‘Sigismar was pleased when we informed him that the sumptuous lustre, representing a tree loaded with brilliant fruit, was taken by Alexander the Great at the siege of Thebes, and by him consecrated in a fane of the same Deity, to whom Augustus again dedicated it. We shewed him the place where the Sybilline books were deposited, the ivory doors, and other objects of curiosity, which attract the eyes of a stranger. Germanicus then led him into a large hall, which he desired him to observe with particular attention. “This place,” said he, “once belonged to a man who fell with distinguished bravery in an unjust cause. This was part of the house of Catiline, since united to the Cæsarean habitation, and destined by Augustus for the noblest purpose. He had appointed Verrius Flaccus to be the preceptor of his adoptive sons, Caius and Lucius; and as this learned and virtuous [man] would not abandon the other youths whom he had undertaken to educate, Augustus removed the master and his numerous scholars into this palace, giving them this hall for their literary studies. His sons were thus brought up with emulation and patriotism in the midst of their fellow citizens, whilst he presided over their studies, and himself instructed them in the use of arms, and other manly exercises. In this school was laid the basis of that education which rendered my father Drusus one of the greatest and best of men, and consequently to this I owe the inestimable advantage of his precepts and example.”

‘As Germanicus was speaking, the respectable Verrius, who still inhabits the contiguous apartments, and preserves all the faculties of his mind at a very advanced age, walked through the hall, leaning on the arm of two senators, who had formerly been his pupils. Germanicus accosted him with affectionate respect, and I was delighted that my friend should be witness of an incident that proves we are not totally degenerate. He saw the reverence paid to an aged and unambitious man, to the son of a freedman, whose talents were never employed to render himself illustrious, but to form honourable leaders, wise statesmen, and useful citizens for the common wealth; who was contented that labour should be his portion, whilst fame was that of his scholars; desiring no other reward than the success of his instructions; and who consecrated to the public good the just munificence of a prince, whose greatest merit was the power of distinguishing merit in others.

‘Sigismar was not insensible to the scene before him, and you will readily believe that he was transported with the manners and conversation of Germanicus.’

Many illustrations of Roman antiquities and manners will be found in the course of these volumes. We must however confess ourselves disappointed in not finding more of this kind, in a work, which professes to exhibit the military, political and social life of the Romans. A wider extent of reading, than this writer discovers, was necessary to the complete execution of the design. Perhaps too the period for such a representation would have been more



more advantageously fixed, just before the termination of the republic. But whatever imperfections or defects a critical eye may discover in the piece, considered historically; as a work of fancy, the author is certainly entitled to praise, for propriety of sentiment, for correctness and elegance of language, and, in a considerable degree, for fertility of invention.

METAPHYSICS.

ART. IV. *Disquisitions Metaphysical and Literary.* By F. Sayers, M. D. 8vo. p. 149. Price 3s. sewed. Johnson. 1793.

IN the discussion of questions which have often been discussed before, and which have occasioned abundance of controversy among writers of high reputation, we ought not perhaps to look for much novelty, or even much conviction. The author of these disquisitions expatiates in beaten fields of speculation and criticism. And if a writer, who has much to demolish as well as something to establish, states the doctrines he opposes with fairness, and attacks them with address, while he develops his own principles with precision, and maintains them with ingenuity, it would be unreasonable to require, with so many proofs of speculative frailty immediately before us, that the opinions he espouses, or his mode of supporting them, should be absolutely free from objection.

Whether the author of this work stand in need of this indulgence, or whether he have entitled himself to it, by an observance of the conditions we have ventured to suggest, it will be our province to enable our readers to determine for themselves.

The intention of his first disquisition, upon which we shall dwell the longer on account of the interest that attaches to the subject, is 'to investigate the pleasure produced from beautiful objects;' and to examine whether 'something may be done, in the way of fixing an universal standard of beauty.'

Lest such an inquiry should appear unnecessary, he objects in form against those theories of beauty which have most recently been offered to the public.

'An artist of great eminence has taught that objects deviate from beauty, in proportion as they deviate from *a curve of a peculiar shape.*' To this doctrine our author opposes instances of beauty in figures bounded by straight lines, as the pyramid, and others; in the sharp angles in architecture; in straight pillars: and he adds, that 'curved pillars would give us an idea of *bending under a weight*, and infallibly disgust.' But can it have escaped the author, that a column may bend, without bending from its perpendicular; and that a cylinder may be as erect as a cube?

To the doctrine, that beauty consists in *simplicity*, he opposes the human form, the Corinthian order, and other beautiful complex figures.

To the theory 'of a very celebrated writer, that *an union of several qualities* in objects produces beauty; as, *littleness, smoothness, gradual variation, delicacy*'—he replies, successively, that  
angels

angels and the Laocoon are *larger* than the human standard; 'that many *hirsute* and *shaggy* objects are exceedingly beautiful; that a building or apartment in which we could discover only *wavy* lines would be quite ridiculous; and that beauty ought not to be discarded from the *stronger* species of animals, from a *nervous* human figure, and from all buildings for defence.'

To the supporters of the theory of *utility*, he observes, 'that the appearance of manly strength in a female, would not be considered as adding to her beauty, yet such strength might occasionally be *useful*.'

To the *central set of features*, and central form of sir Joshua Reynolds, by which are meant forms and features most commonly to be met with, our author objects, 'that beauty, which in its nature must be most uncommon, is not likely to be composed of what we most commonly meet.' He might have added, that the term *ordinary*, is often taken as synonymous with *ugly*.

We come at length to a theory, which our author thinks less liable to exception. We give it in his own words.

'It will readily be granted, that those objects which we are accustomed to call beautiful, make a pleasing impression upon the mind; but the mere pleasure of simple perception seems by no means to account for the great degree of enjoyment which the contemplation of certain objects produces; for however the palate may be gratified by particular dishes, the eye by a particular tint, or the sense of smelling by odoriferous substances, yet it is certain, that the view of a beautiful object occasions in us much more exquisite feelings of pleasure than the most delicious food, the most brilliant colour, or the most grateful perfume. We must therefore seek for some other cause of this peculiar sensation of delight; this cause will be found to depend upon an *association of ideas*: With the forms which we esteem beautiful, it will appear *that certain pleasing ideas or emotions are associated in our mind*, which, upon the presentation of such forms, regularly arise, and produce those sensations which we attribute to the beauty of the object. This power then, which an object possesses, of exciting pleasing ideas, or emotions, associated with it, is what determines us to ascribe to it beauty\*.'

In order to give the most decisive proof of the truth of this principle, the author contends, that it has power to *change* the most forcible impressions of objects; and that 'even the bowels in the dead carcases of men and other animals, may, in the mind of the anatomist, be so strongly associated with the ideas of wisdom and utility, as to be converted into a *beautiful and pleasing object of contemplation*.' But here, we confess, it strikes us, at first view, that the author does some violence to fact, without aiding his system; for the instance, if admitted, would rather tend to confirm the theory of *utility*, than that of 'the association of *pleasing* emotions.'

He proceeds, with more success, to fortify his system, by enumerating the associations which attach the notion of beauty

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\* \* The first hint of the theory which I have now stated is to be found in the admirable work of Dr. Hartley.'

successively to the most contrary *fashions*. The beauty which most parents discover in their own *children*, and all lovers in their mistresses, he traces to the same source. He instances, too, the contrary operation of *unpleasing* passions on our opinion of personal charms; and cites the great dramatist—

‘This news has made thee a most ugly man.’

He urges the influence of bodily pain on our relish, or even perception of beauty. He observes upon the dismal effect that must ensue from an interchange of features between the sexes in the human race. He states the difference between European and American ideas of beauty.

Turning to the vegetable world, he ascribes ‘the charms of the primrose and the snowdrop to their *connexion* with the spring.’ Under this head, he furnishes a new example that it is easy to be classical overmuch. ‘With the rose is associated the gayest efforts of the lyric muse; with the myrtle the charms of Venus, and the sports of the loves; and with the laurel the triumphs of arts and arms;—hence the beauty so generally acknowledged in these classes of *vegetables*.’ The beauty of landscapes he traces to the associated ideas of health, peace, rural happiness, and classical imagery.

After extending his principle to the imitative arts of painting and sculpture; to architecture; to the mechanic arts; to poetry; to music; to the native accents of the fields and groves; our author winds up his doctrine, though with some sceptical exceptions, in the following propositions:

‘There appear to be certain excellencies which belong to each of the different classes of objects presented to us: these excellencies are more or less associated with certain forms, &c. of objects: and by comparing the individuals of each class with one another, we are able to discover with what forms these excellencies are more or less associated, and also which of the individuals partakes the most of that form with which the greatest number of the excellencies of its species are associated.’

Having paid this homage to the irresistible subject of our author’s first disquisition, we are compelled to contract our account of what remains.

The subjects of the following disquisitions are—2. Of the dramatic unities—3. Of perception—4. Of disinterested passions—5. Of the evidence for Christianity—6. Of the connexion of pain and pleasure—7. Of luxury—8. Of English metres—9. Of the poetical character of Horace.

On the subject of the DRAMATIC UNITIES, the author has, with much judgment, pointed out the inconveniences of adhering too strictly either to the ancient or the modern laws of the drama. In the place of these shackles, he substitutes the ‘*grand rule of preserving the probable*.’ Without going the length of those who justify the excesses of Shakespeare, whose works, like his genius, are a sublime exception, not the rule, he maintains, that ‘the arbitrary period of twenty-four hours, any more than that of three hours, the more rational limitation of the *duration* of a theatrical performance, is not long enough to produce  
great



great resolves or evolutions of character.' He thinks 'that the audience would leave the time *between the acts* to the pleasure of the poet,' subject to certain restrictions which he lays down. He asserts, that a strict preservance of the unity of *place*, continually 'forces characters into a spot, in which there is no reason for their assembling but the rule laid down,' and every other reason against it. But he does not carry his objections to the extent of some recent authorities, which he rejects and exposes. With respect to the unity of *action*, he determines, 'that provided the underplots have an evident connexion with the grand catastrophe of the play, they may be introduced with the greatest *probability*, and are so far proper.' If, upon this ground, it be urged 'that scenes of gaiety may be introduced into a tragic piece, as the gay and the sorrowful often appear together in nature,' he admits the inference, but observes, 'that none but the hand of a consummate master can lead us at pleasure through the most contrary passions.' He concludes, from the whole, 'that the *unities* can most usually be *violated*, to a certain degree, *with more probability* than they can be preserved.'

Under the head of PERCEPTION, he examines, 'as matter of curiosity rather than of much importance to us, whether ideas are presented to the mind synchronously, or whether the one succeeds to the other, without any perceptible interval of time? And he concludes, 'that the arguments he adduces, and others that might be adduced, seem to strengthen the opinion, *that more than one idea cannot be perceived by the mind at the same instant of time.*'

On the subject of DISINTERESTED PASSIONS, he has again recourse to the principle of association; he traces their origin to selfishness; but he observes, 'that in the history of the human mind, we find many instances of our dropping an intermediate idea, which has been the means of our *connecting* two other ideas together: that by contemplating the advantage to be derived to *ourselves* from promoting the prosperity of our friend, we learn to associate a set of *pleasant ideas* with *his* happiness; that the link that has united them escapes us, while the union itself remains: and that we ought to contemplate with peculiar pleasure, that masterly arrangement of mind, which thus confers a power upon selfishness itself, of converting the pleasure and welfare of others into a source of the greatest delight to ourselves.'

On the chapter of the EVIDENCE FOR CHRISTIANITY, the author adopts the observation of Dr. Butler in his Analogy—'That this evidence consists of many particulars, the full effect of which will only arise from their being collectively considered: and it appears to him, that the more important parts of the evidence might be advantageously stated in a manner somewhat different from any which he remembers to have met with.' This statement the author undertakes, and with success, in the disquisition before us.

Upon the subject of the CONNEXION BETWEEN PAIN AND PLEASURE, after discussing the question *a priori*, as well as by reasoning from experience, he concludes that, 'Whether pain arises  
from

from excess or deficiency of action, the gradual or the sudden removal of it must be in all cases attended with pleasure.' The writer does not inquire whether, on the other hand, a similar removal of pleasure must in all cases be attended with pain.

In the disquisition on LUXURY, the author states fairly the nature of the enjoyments and riches it may accumulate in a state, and of the public and private ruin that may attend its abuse or excess.

The object of the disquisition on ENGLISH METRES is to justify and recommend *unrhymed* measures in our English poetry. The author even thinks that the hexameter and pentameter might be used in our language, notwithstanding the miserable specimens in that way in sir Philip Sydney's *Arcadia*. For our parts, we not only agree with the poet,

"That Sydney's verse halts ill on Roman feet ;"

but we are clearly of opinion, that all future attempts will be equally unsuccessful: and that chiefly upon the ground suggested by our author himself, of the irreconcilable variance 'in our language between emphasis and position.' He cites instances 'of regular unrhymed odes' in some of our minor poets, and shelters himself under the authority of the choruses in *Samson Agonistes*. But beside that the greater part of these passages in Milton are composed of hemistichs of blank verse, which stop at the cesure, let these passages be compared with the lyric parts of *Comus*, and it will not be difficult, from the examples of the divine master of blank verse, to decide upon the merits of rhymed and unrhymed odes. We confess, that a great number of the specimens we have met with of the unrhymed ode have given us the idea of "*prose run mad*," but a far greater number that of *prose in fetters*.

The apparent intention of the *last* disquisition is to attack the Pindaric fame of Horace: in doing which, instead of *analysing*, we are compelled to think that the author *anatomizes*, some of his most celebrated odes: he not only seems to deny them "the thoughts that breathe, and words that burn," but even the *happy elegance* which is the characteristic of this writer; he does not exhibit a scattered limb of the poet, but leaves a skeleton, the component parts of which can hardly be recognised.

If in this instance, however, the author depart from his usual candour, it is but justice to say, that in this work we see nothing of that dogmatizing spirit, which too often disfigures and disgraces the page of controversy and criticism: and that the writer, while he pleases and instructs by his own reflections, invites, and in a manner obliges, the reader to reflect for himself.

NATURAL HISTORY.

ART. V. *A New System of the Natural History of Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, and Insects.* In three Volumes 8vo. About 570 pages and 50 plates in each. Pr. 11s. 6d. in boards. Edinburgh, Hill; London, Cadell. 1792.

THE



THE first volume of this work having been published some time ago, we must refer our readers for the author's account of his plan, as well as for our general idea of the design and execution, to Rev. Vol. XII. p. 63. The work has been continued with the same industry, and the same attention to systematic arrangement, which appeared in the first volume. The more remarkable animals under the several classes of quadrupeds, birds, fishes, and insects, are distinctly described. In order to give some idea of the manner in which this work is drawn up, we shall extract one specimen from the second class. VOL. II. P. 315.

Of all the varieties of the domestic pigeon, the *carrier*, or *messenger*, is the most remarkable for attachment to his native place, and affection for his female. From this peculiarity, it has been employed at *Cairo*, and in many parts of the east, as a carrier; an office, for which it is well qualified, since it is capable, in the same space, to travel three times farther than the fleetest horse. At *Scanderoon*, where this messenger was employed to convey the speediest intelligence to the merchants of *Aleppo*, of the arrival of ships, they fastened a letter under its wing, and, after having fed it, dispatched it to its native country. No sooner does the bird find itself at liberty, than it raises itself to an amazing height in the air, and continues to direct its course, with unerring certainty, and at the astonishing velocity of forty miles in an hour and a half. In our own country, these aerial messengers have been employed for a very singular purpose; being let fly at *Tyburn*, when the fatal cart is drawn away, to notify, to distant friends, the departure of the unhappy criminal. If we may believe *Tasso*, the *Egyptians* had improved upon this idea, and had *relays* of messengers, to relieve each other; so that, by this means, intelligence of any kind could be conveyed, in a few hours, throughout the whole kingdom.

It is pretended, that great use was made, in ancient times, of the carrier-pigeon, in opening a correspondence between besieged towns, and the armies that were to relieve them. Such was the intercourse carried on between *Brutus* and *Hirtius* at *Modena*, in spite of every attempt of the besieger, *Anthony*, to intercept their couriers. In the time of the crusades, when the most romantic enterprises were carried on in a romantic manner; we read of many important articles of intelligence having been conveyed by the pigeon. *Anacreon*, however, mentions another kind of warfare, and other sieges, in which, in his time, this gentle, but uncertain courier, was probably oftener employed; and that was, in carrying love letters from lovers to their mistresses. He seems indeed much better qualified for the service of *Cupid*, than of *Mars*. In his beautiful little ode, addressed to his pigeon, that poet pays him many compliments on his affection and services; and mentions, among the last, his having carried his epistle to young *Bathyllus*.

There are many varieties of the domestic pigeon, or stock-dove from which it is derived, in foreign parts: Through all the warm and temperate regions of *America*, there are found many varieties. They are also seen in the *East Indies*, and in most of the islands of the *Indian Ocean*. At *Amboyna*, there are two species; quite green. Sir *Hans Sloane* has described a variety found in *Jamaica*, purple on the upper part of the body, and white below.

A general



A general introduction is prefixed to each part of the work. Concerning birds, particularly, the author treats of the manner in which the study of ornithology has been pursued; of the external characters of birds; their flight, plumage, and migration; their food, longevity, diseases, and fertility; their nestling and incubation; and the general uses to which they are subservient in the economy of nature.

We shall extract what our author says concerning their food and longevity. P. 42.

When we compare birds with the four-footed animals there are many circumstances with regard to their subsistence, in which they strikingly resemble each other: The different kinds of food destined to be the support of the various tribes of both classes of animated beings, points out a strong analogy between them, and impresses the mind with an idea of the uniformity of the general plan of nature. There are among birds, as among quadrupeds, some that are carnivorous; and others, whose food consists of fruits, grain, insects, or vegetables. The same physical cause which produces in some quadrupeds the necessity of devouring flesh, and other strongly nutritive food, subsists also among birds. The carnivorous tribes in both have but one stomach; and the whole of their intestines are formed on a smaller scale, than in those whose nourishment is grain or fruit. The crop in granivorous birds, and the paunch which corresponds to it in ruminating animals, are generally wanting in the rapacious kinds: By the largeness of this instrument of digestion, the former are capable of swallowing a much greater quantity of food, and can thus compensate for the plainness and simplicity of its quality.

The disposition and habits of all animals are strongly influenced by their manner of subsisting, and the nature of their food: Among birds, there is observable the same variety as in quadrupeds; for in both, the causes of it are similar. The noble and generous eagle ranks among the former, as the lion among the latter: while the cruel and insatiable vulture seems to correspond with the tyger in savage rapacity. The kites, the buzzards, and the ravens, are the hyænas, wolves, and jackals of birds; while the peacocks, turkeys, and all the gallinaceous tribes, represent the oxen, sheep, goats, and other ruminating quadrupeds: The manners of the latter are more mild and gentle than those of the rapacious kinds, and their flesh more salubrious and palatable.

It appears, however, that the food of birds is, upon the whole, more various than that of quadrupeds; and that every species is less confined in its choice. Nature seems to have consigned to them for food, every animal, and every vegetable; and among the former are comprehended a great variety of insects and reptiles, which quadrupeds generally disdain. As their sense of taste is far from being delicate, they frequently supply the deficiency of one kind of food by another; the hen and the turkey almost indiscriminately devour flesh and grain. Their organs of taste are cartilaginous, and possess hardly any sensibility; their food is instantly swallowed without mastication. From these circumstances, it sometimes happens, that instead of nourishment, they devour poison. Hence the attempts of *Frisch* and some naturalists to arrange birds according to the nature of their food, have proved equally unsuccessful and injudicious; never can we ascertain the nature of any animal by a single habit alone; the more numerous the

the characters that are selected for its discrimination, the less imperfection will be found in its arrangement.

As birds want the power of masticating their food, the formation of the stomach of the granivorous orders is admirably contrived to supply that deficiency. That office, which in quadrupeds is performed by the teeth, is in them transferred to the gizzard; which, by its strong muscular texture, is capable of being so forcibly contracted as completely to grind the hardest grain. This power of the gizzard is augmented by means of small pebbles which the bird swallows along with its food; when aided by these, the hardest substances, even metals themselves, are corroded, and unable to resist its force. Pieces of coin have been introduced into the stomachs of birds; and it has been uniformly found that their weight is considerably diminished, after being exposed to the violent trituration which they produce.

As birds are destined to move through the light medium of the air, they are far inferior both in weight and magnitude to the quadrupeds; the largest bird, the ostrich, bears no proportion to the elephant; nor does the humming bird, which nature has placed at the other extremity of this class, nearly approach to the size of a mouse. Nature, as she approaches near the confines of each class, confers more and more of the properties of the adjoining one on each species, till at last they so nearly approximate that she seems doubtful in her operations. The ostrich, placed at the extremity of the birds, seems in many respects nearly allied to a superior order: Seemingly covered with hair, and incapable of flight, he makes near approaches to the race of quadrupeds; while the small humming bird, of the size of an humble bee, and sucking like it the nectaria of flowers, seems to be degraded nearly to the rank of an insect.

From the small size and slender conformation of birds we might be led to suppose, that the duration of their life would prove but short; the reverse, however, of this is the case: Their longevity far exceeds that of quadrupeds, and even of man himself; and it seems neither to observe the same proportions, nor to be guided by the same rules. In these animals, the duration of life bears a certain proportion to the period at which they arrive at their full growth and maturity; nor are they capable of procreation till their size is nearly completed. In birds, the growth is more quick, and the period of procreation much earlier; many of them run as soon as they are excluded from the shell, and fly at the end of four or five weeks: a cock is capable of procreation at six months, and arrives at maturity in a year: if then the duration of human life, and that of quadrupeds, is only six or seven times longer than the period at which they arrive at maturity, a cock should live only six or seven years; his longevity, however, is far greater, some being known to live upwards of twenty years. A linnet has been known to live 14 years; bulfinches 20; parrots are said to live 40 years; geese fourscore: of swans, eagles, and ravens, there are various reports; some have asserted that they lived 100 years, others double, and even three times that period; but of this there are few well attested examples.

The longevity of birds, *M. Buffon* imputes to the texture of their bones; the hardness and solidity of which, he assigns as the general cause of death in all animals: those of birds being lighter and more porous in their conformation, present fewer obstacles to the vital functions;



functions; and nature thus finding more room for the functions of life, carries it on to a more distant period. The less solid the bones are, the more distant, he alleges, will be the period of death; hence a greater number of women than men arrive at extreme old age.

In like manner the treatise on ichthyology is introduced by a brief history of the science; an account of the external parts and motions of fishes; of their respiration and food; their generation and fecundity, their growth, longevity and dietetical uses: and the natural history of insects is prefaced by general remarks on the state of etymology; a comparative view of the senses and endowments of insects with those of other animals; their external parts and classical characters; their generation and metamorphosis; their habitation and food, and their uses in the economy of nature.

The author appears to have made a judicious use of the labour of his predecessors in this branch of natural history, and has furnished a very entertaining and instructive work, exceedingly proper to be put into the hands of young persons.

The plates to this work, which are very numerous, are well executed.

D. M.

M E D I C I N E.

ART. VI. *An Inquiry into the remote Cause of urinary Gravel.*

By Alexander Philip Wilson, M. D. Soc. Med. Edin. Soc.

8vo. 171 pa. Pr. 3s. 6d. Edinburgh, Duncan; London,

Johnson. 1792.

AN inquiry, which has for its object the investigation of the causes that tend to produce the formation of urinary gravel and calculous concretions in the human body, must be estimated a task of considerable importance, and highly deserving the attention of physicians, and which probably demands from us a more than ordinary examination. In the beginning of the work, the author observes, that he enters upon this difficult investigation with a greater prospect of success, since the experience of every age has evinced, that there are certain circumstances giving a predisposition to gravel, which no succeeding method of cure has appeared capable of counteracting. And though experience may have pointed out many of the causes which pre-dispose to gravel, yet, unless aided by reason, he thinks that it cannot explore the change induced on the body, which constitutes the remote cause of the disease, the hinge on which every rational plan of prevention must turn. Physicians, in his opinion, have been running in quest of lithontriptics, instead of assiduously endeavouring to determine the cause of the disease; and from their anxiety to relieve the complaints which it has occasioned, they have omitted to ascertain the means of preventing its first appearance. Our author therefore first attempts to determine the manner in which the pre-disposing causes of gravel act; and afterwards endeavours to lay down rules for the prevention of the disease.

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With



With these views, he divides his publication into two parts, the first of which contains his experiments in proof of the remote cause of urinary gravel, his remarks on the depositions of the urine, and the manner in which acids act on it; with general observations on those experiments and their application, in order to determine the remote cause of gravel, and also the circumstances which render it probable that the remote cause of gravel is present, with the means for its removal.

In the second part, from the great connexion which dyspepsia has with urinary gravel, Dr. W. is led, both in giving the pathology of the disease, and in laying down indications for its treatment, to consider it particularly, with respect to its proximate cause and method of cure.

The experiments, which the author has here brought forward, seem to have been made with as much accuracy as the nature of them would permit. They were also a little varied by giving different kinds of food. From the first ten experiments the doctor concludes, that considerable, and even slight alterations in the manner of living, produce very evident changes in the state of the urine; and that an 'acidity of the *primæ viæ* (*cæteris paribus*) increases the tendency of the urine to deposit the lithic acid.' The 11th, 12th, and 13th experiments tend to show, that by 'whatever means the excretion by the skin is increased, the quantity of lithic acid found in the urine is diminished, and sometimes totally abstracted.' The 14th, 15th, 16th, and 17th experiments are made with a view to prove, that by producing sweat the quantity of lithic acid, in the same urine, is also diminished. The 18th, 19th, 20th, and 21st experiments show, that increasing insensible perspiration by *diaphoretics* is a still more convenient and efficacious method of preventing the urine from depositing its lithic acid; 'for [says Dr. W.] I have always observed, that a small dose of tartar emetic more certainly prevents the deposition of lithic acid, than a large one of Dover's powder, producing a copious sweat.' For the above purpose, mercury was also tried with success by our author in the 22d and 23d experiments. The last experiment is instituted to prove, that an acid passes by insensible perspiration.

We next come to the author's observations respecting the manner in which acids act upon the urine, after it is out of the body, and on the nature of those depositions which have been mentioned frequently in the preceding parts of his work. After stating the following very curious fact from an anonymous author, viz. 'that on adding any acid, even the carbonaceous, to urine, he always procured a copious deposition of what he calls the concreting acid;' which, however, is the same matter that our author, after Scheele, has denominated the lithic acid. 'Urine left to itself [says Dr. W.] deposits either a whitish matter, rendering it muddy, or crystals of lithic acid, or sometimes both.' On the different circumstances in life, which produce the one or the other of these depositions, he observes, p. 82—

'in the *first* place, then, with regard to these two depositions, I never found both existing in any considerable quantity in the  
same

same urine, but always observed, that where there was much of either, there was little or none of the other; from this, I was led to suppose, that the presence of the one was, to a certain degree, incompatible with that of the other. This opinion is confirmed by what I am soon to mention. *Secondly*, While the lithic acid was found in greatest quantity in the urine of a person living on an acescent diet, the cream-coloured deposition was increased by food of a contrary tendency. *Thirdly*, Any cause increasing perspiration, while it diminishes the quantity of lithic acid, tends to produce the cream-coloured sediment in the urine. *Fourthly*, The cream-coloured sediment is more soluble in the urine than the lithic acid. *Lastly*, The lithic acid is less easily acted on by acids than the cream-coloured sediment.

‘From these circumstances, as well as other considerations, we infer, that it is the lithic acid which is apt to form concretions in the urinary passages, since it is less soluble, and more apt to concrete than the other, and is produced by that manner of life which experience has taught us, is apt to induce calculous complaints. We must also infer from them, that the secretion of any acid matter by the kidneys, tends to produce a deposition of lithic acid; and at the same time to prevent that which, from its appearance, I have called the cream-coloured sediment: this I confirmed by experiment; for I always found, that the addition of an acid to the urine, while it produced a deposition of the lithic acid, prevented the appearance of the cream-coloured sediment; and that, on adding it to urine which contained the cream-coloured sediment, but no crystals of lithic acid, the former, sooner or later, disappeared, while the other was deposited, leaving the urine, formerly turbid with the cream-coloured sediment, perfectly transparent; nor is this an effect which will take place merely by keeping the urine for some time at rest; for, after keeping it for months, without the addition of an acid, it is always found as turbid as at first.

‘Another effect of acids on the urine is, that of changing its colour,’ which they redden and render darker. Particular acids likewise (the author remarks) produce other phenomena when mixed with the urine. On the spontaneous depositions which take place from the urine, he observes, that the nature of one of them has been pretty well understood; but that the other, the cream-coloured sediment, appears to have been overlooked. From several experiments Dr. W. concludes, that this sediment is not the calcareous phosphat, but a neutral salt containing the lithic acid; ‘from which it may be precipitated by perhaps every other acid, and which, forming a new compound more soluble than the cream-coloured sediment, the urine appears transparent, while the lithic acid is deposited in the form of very fine sand.’ From what the author has collected on this subject, he thinks it probable, ‘that a diet composed of animal food, or any cause promoting perspiration, lessens the tendency of the urine to deposit lithic acid.’ He next puts the question—‘Does the body, by its own powers, generate an acid capable of precipitating the lithic acid from the urine? Or is such an acid always derived from acescent diet?’ If the different ap-

pearances of the urine be carefully examined, Dr. W. thinks that three distinct states of it will be found, in which it exists at different times, and which point out different conditions of its secreting organs. The first is, when the vessels of the kidney are constricted: in this case the urine flows limpid, and deposits little sediment of any kind. The second is, when the urine is as high coloured as usual, but deposits less lithic acid: here the kidney appears in a state of relaxation rather than of vigorous action. The vigorous action of the kidney forms the third state, in which the colour of the urine is not higher than where mere relaxation takes place; it, however, deposits more of the lithic acid. These three states of the kidney (the author imagines) are experienced by every person once a day, in either a greater or less degree, 'according as their body is more or less irritable.' The supposition of the diurnal occurrence of these states seems to us rather fanciful than real; at least we have never been able distinctly to observe them. p. 100.

'These observations tend to establish a fact of considerable importance, with regard to the pathology of gravel, viz. That it is by the vigorous action of the skin and kidney, that any dangerous accumulation of acid must be guarded against; former observations pointing out, that no abstinence from acedent *ingesta* whatever, is sufficient for this purpose.

'Upon the whole, from the foregoing experiments and observations, I would conclude, in the 1<sup>st</sup> place, That any cause obstructing perspiration, produces a greater than ordinary precipitation of lithic acid from the urine. 2<sup>dly</sup>, That the same precipitation is, *cæteris paribus*, increased by acedent diet, and much diminished by using a large proportion of animal food. 3<sup>dly</sup>, That by the inactivity of the skin and kidneys, an accumulation of acid may take place in the system, only to be thrown off by restoring their proper action. 4<sup>thly</sup>, That by the proper use of diaphoretics, we can often entirely prevent the deposition of lithic acid from the urine. 5<sup>thly</sup>, That the quantity of lithic acid deposited, is by no means in proportion to the height of the colour of the urine. Lastly, We must conclude from Mess. Scheele's and Bergman's experiments, as well as from the above observations, that it is the lithic acid which is apt to form insoluble concretions in the urine; hence the danger of all those circumstances of life, tending to occasion its precipitation, as will be fully seen in the following chapter.'

The author, after this view of the matter, endeavours to apply his experiments and observations so as to explain the change induced on the body by the pre-disposing causes of gravel, all of which he attempts to prove produce the same change on the body. The chief pre-disposing causes of gravel, according to him, are, '1<sup>st</sup>, Too great a proportion of solid, from the particular formation of the body—2<sup>dly</sup>, Old age—3<sup>dly</sup>, Excessive labour.—4<sup>thly</sup>, High living, and the liberal use of fermented liquors—5<sup>thly</sup>, Indolence—and 6<sup>thly</sup>, Too much heat applied to the body in general, or particularly to the kidneys.' Dr. W. here endeavours to explain the manner in which these causes act in producing the gravel, and which he concludes to be, by producing



ducing a state of inactivity of the skin and kidneys ; ' and hence an over proportion of acid matter in the system, and a deposition of lithic acid from the urine, so soon as it passes by the kidneys.' This inactivity of the skin and kidneys he therefore considers—*the remote cause of gravel.*

Our author after this proceeds to state the circumstances which indicate the presence of an accumulation of acid, and the means necessary for clearing the system of it. He contends that, as an over proportion of this matter is gradually accumulating in the body from the inactive state of the skin and kidneys, the gravel must be a periodical disease ; and that, as the inactivity of these organs is gradually increasing, the fits of the gravel must, by degrees, become more frequent, which is confirmed by experience. After mentioning the situations in which an accumulation of acid may be suspected to be present, he passes to the means by which this morbid condition of the body is to be corrected, the indications for which in his opinion are four ;—' 1. Strengthening and assisting the digestive organs—2. Avoiding such *ingesta* as increase the quantity of the matter we endeavour to expel—3. Using such as have an opposite tendency—4. Throwing out this matter by every means in our power.' This part of his work is concluded by stating the means best calculated for fulfilling the above indications.

In the second part of the work before us, the author enters into an examination of the nature of *dyspepsia*. In considering this disease, he first inquires what is to be esteemed the efficient cause of digestion in the human body. On this intricate subject, Dr. W. appears inclined to think, that fermentation serves some useful purpose to, though it cannot be the efficient cause of, digestion. ' In short, [says he] we cannot help concluding, that a slight degree of fermentation, previous to digestion, is favourable to that process. But we must still look upon the gastric liquor as the instrument of digestion, while mastication, trituration, and fermentation, are beneficial only by facilitating its action.'

With respect to the proximate cause of dyspepsia, our author seems to think it surprising, that, while so many experiments have been made to determine the efficient cause of digestion, no person has attempted to investigate the proximate cause of its failure. It has, however, been the opinion of authors, that dyspepsia is owing to one of three causes : either to a diminution of the muscular action of the stomach ; to the vitiated state of the gastric liquor ; or to a deficiency of the same liquor. Dr. W. rejects the two first opinions, without having perhaps sufficiently considered them ; and contends, that the last is the true cause of this disease. His arguments in favour of it are, however, by no means satisfactory, though certainly ingenious. He next attempts, in conformity to the hypothesis which he supports, to explain the manner in which the remedies that alleviate or cure this disease, act.

Respecting the cure of this troublesome disease, Dr. W. very properly remarks, that vomiting has often been hurtfully employed. The rules and regulations which are here given with

regard to diet, sleep, and exercise, are judicious, though not new or unobserved by other writers on this disease. In severe cases of dyspepsia, our author thinks considerable advantage might be derived from the introduction of the gastric liquor of some brute animal, living on food similar to that of man, into the stomach. This is undoubtedly an idea perfectly coinciding with the opinion which this writer appears to entertain of the nature of the complaint; but the most probable theories too often deceive us when put to the unerring test of experiment; we could therefore have wished, that the author had adduced some proofs of the success resulting from this part of his plan of treatment in this disease, before he had pronounced so decidedly in its favour.

On the whole, we must observe, respecting this ingenious and useful inquiry, that the experiments, from which the author has drawn his conclusions, scarcely appear either sufficiently numerous, or sufficiently varied, with regard to diet, to afford a full and complete explanation of the nature of the causes which induce the formation of calculous concretions in the urinary passages.

A. R.

**ART. VII.** *Sketches of Facts and Opinions respecting the Venereal Disease.* By William Houlston, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons; Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and of the Medical Society of London; and Surgeon to the Philanthropic Reform. 8vo. 47 pages. Price 1s. Cadell. 1792.

The author of these sketches has not undertaken to communicate information to 'persons professionally informed;' his observations are principally intended to gratify the curiosity of those inquisitive people, who may feel themselves interested in knowing his opinions. But although Mr. H. has not advanced any new facts, or contributed to the common stock of practical knowledge; yet, this publication contains several useful hints, and pertinent remarks, which may prove serviceable to that part of mankind, for which this work was originally designed. The following inaccuracy which we observed at page 21, will merit the author's attention upon a future occasion. 'It appears, by attending to the history of the venereal disease on its first introduction into Europe, that *the gonorrhoea was known many years before the lues venerea.*' Now it happens, that we are taught directly the contrary to this assertion, by the early writers on the venereal disease. A. F.

## L A W.

**ART. VIII.** *Histoire impartiale du Procès de Louis XVI. ci-devant Roi des Français, &c.* An impartial History of the Trial of Lewis XVI. heretofore King of the French; or a complete and authentic Collection of all the Reports made to the National Convention, concerning the late King; the different Opinions of the Representatives of the People, and of private Persons, pronounced at the National Tribunal, or printed for the Inspection of the Public; in short, all the Papers relative to this Process, the definitive Judgment included. By L. F. Jauffret, a Lawyer, Author of the Gazette of the Tribunals,



**Tribunals, and of the Memorial of the Administrative and Municipal Bodies.** Printed at Paris during the 1st and 2d Years of the French Republic (1792 and 1793) and imported by J. Boffe. 8vo. 5 vols.

The trial, condemnation, and execution of Lewis XVI, are circumstances which, with the exception of France alone, have surprised, appalled, and alarmed all Europe. Many have blamed the injustice, and not a few the impolicy of his decollation: it has indeed been loudly and generally disapproved in most, if not all the surrounding nations: however, it is but fair, to observe, that this measure has been almost universally approved by the French themselves, as may be learned from the numerous declarations of felicitation upon, and adhesion to, the sentence. In short, not a single petition was presented in behalf of Lewis, not a single remonstrance has been made in consequence of his melancholy end. Amidst this uncertainty, every liberal and independent mind will attempt to shake off the trammels of prejudice and prepossession; and perusing the original reports produced to the convention, and the facts by which they were supported, endeavour to judge and to decide for itself. As for us, we shall present a summary of all the interesting particulars, without offering a single argument or opinion of our own.

*Report of L. J. Gohier, presented to the legislative assembly on the 16th of September, 1792.*

Mr. Gohier begins by telling his fellow-citizens that the veil which had concealed the intrigues of the executive power is at length set aside, and that those who protected their domestic, and kept up a criminal correspondence with their foreign enemies, were discovered. He says, that the generosity of a nation, towards a man who seemed to consider it as a matter of amusement to break his oaths, could never touch the heart of Lewis XVI. The hereditary descent of the throne, preserved in his family by a constitution which precluded, in every other instance, the transmission of personal privileges; the doctrine of inviolability consecrated in his person; a civil list, which of itself was equivalent to the revenues of more than one state in Europe; the distribution of all favours; the nomination to all places of importance; the title of hereditary representative; the fatal power of palsying all the operations of the representatives of the people by means of the *veto*:—so many prerogatives, highly alarming to the cause of liberty, were not considered by him, on whom they were so indiscreetly conferred, but as the wreck of a power, which had escaped from his hands, and which it was his business to endeavour to reconquer.

Lewis XVI. did not see any thing in the constitution but the immense advantages which it offered him, and the means it afforded to destroy itself. Accordingly, a vast plan of conspiracy was formed, and the committee was now enabled, by means of the papers found at the house of the administrator of the civil list, to develop the details of this audacious enterprise against public liberty.

Lewis XVI. was in the right to say, 'that during the whole course of the revolution his conduct had never varied \*.' The essay which he made of the opinions of the nation, when he descended from the throne, in order to throw himself into the arms of Bouille, only in-

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\* See the king's letter of September 1791.



duced him to change his plan, without altering his intentions; and even when he appeared to yield to the wishes of the people, he dared to 'call upon experience to judge of that constitution, which he had accepted.' At the very moment when a frightful portion of power was entrusted to his hands, he was daring enough to complain 'of the insufficiency of the means necessary to put in motion, and preserve unity in all parts of so vast an empire †:' as if he already wished to prepare the public for that culpable inaction, which was to prove the ruin of the public welfare, and throw the crimes of the constituted authorities upon the vices of the constitution.

After this introduction, the deputy proceeds to sum up the various offences committed by Lewis XVI. We shall here present the reader with an abstract of them:

1. That he and his immediate agents had neglected the proper means of defence against the coalition of foreign powers; that they had kept up a correspondence with the rebels beyond the Rhine, sown divisions in the kingdom, endeavoured to bring the legislative body into disrepute, and finally had attempted to procure its dissolution;
2. That he had opposed his *veto* to the decree for forming an intermediate camp of 20,000 men between Paris and the enemy; and thus rendered the measures adopted by the national assembly illusive;
3. That he had founded his guilty hopes of conquering the liberties of the French, upon an army of 20,000 emigrants, and 150,000 Austrians and Prussians;
4. That out of the income of his civil list he had paid the expences attending upon the printing, publishing, &c. of all the counter-revolutionary pamphlets, distributed in great profusion throughout Paris, and the departments, such as 'The Petition to the Emigrants,' 'The Reply of the Emigrants,' 'The Emigrants to the People,' 'The shortest Follies are the best,' 'The Journal, price a half-penny,' 'The Order of the March and of the Entry of the Emigrants into France,' with various others;
5. The refusal to sanction the decrees against the *counter-revolutionists* assembled at Worms and Coblenz, and the late alarming emigrations;
6. Retaining his disbanded and emigrated *gardes-du-corps* in his pay, so that they, at one and the same time, formed part of the army at Coblenz, and part of the household of the king of the French;
7. That he kept up a public and a private correspondence with his brothers; the one openly for the inspection of the citizens, and the other secretly, for forwarding his own plans;
8. That he disposed of all places of trust in favour of the enemies of the constitution; and that they only received pensions, employments, and admission to the castle of the Tuilleries;
9. That he joined the altar to the throne in order to terrify weak and feeble minds, and instead of extinguishing, taught the torch of fanaticism to burn more bright;
10. That he annihilated all the decrees against the nonjuring clergy by means of his *veto*;

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† The king's letter of September 1791.

11. That he first employed all his efforts to perpetuate the divisions between the *Jacobins* and *Feuillants*, and then endeavoured to render them both unpopular;

And 12. That all the expences of the intendant of the civil list, in order to bring about a counter revolution, were allowed by the king, out of the revenues of the civil list, as none of the funds belonging to it could be appropriated, without a particular order emanating from, or subscribed by him.

*Report delivered in to the national convention in the name of the extraordinary commission of twenty-four, on the 6th of November, 1792, the first year of the republic, relative to the crimes of the ci-devant king, the proofs of which have been found in the papers collected by the committee of inspection of the commons of Paris; by Dufishe-Valazé, a deputy from the department of Orne.*

Mr. Valazé commences his report, by asserting, that the world was intirely mistaken in the character of Lewis Capet, who was supposed to be a man of extreme simplicity, in respect to his manners; on the contrary, he insists, that his whole conduct was replete with mystery and fallacy, and that his ministers had only the merit of an humble imitation; for, adds he, 'the art of deceiving is natural to kings.'

After this, he read several letters found in the port folio of the treasurer of the civil list, by which it appeared:

1. That the king carried on a private correspondence with the emigrants, particularly with Bouille, Choiseul-Stainville, &c.

2. That he remitted them large sums of money;

3. That his sister, madame Elizabeth, transmitted her diamonds to *monsieur*, in order to enable him to carry on a war against his country;

4. That a pension of 4000 liv. per annum was bestowed by the king on the widow of Favras, who was executed for treason;

5. That he presented another to two *nonjuring* clergymen;

6. That he attempted to corrupt the constituent assembly, and procure decrees from them by means of bribery;

7. That he enjoined Mr. Septeuil to employ the funds arising from the civil list in a monopoly of corn, sugar, and coffee, by an express order signed with his own hand;

8. That, in direct contradicton to the laws, a new order of chivalry, under the name of *chevaliers de la Reine*, was established;

9. That a body of men was kept in the king's pay, contrary to the letter and spirit of the constitution, sixty of whom were discovered to have received 1200 liv. per annum each;

10. That Lewis had bestowed immense sums upon the editors of newspapers, in order to mislead the public, particularly on those who conducted the *Logographe* and the *Postillon de la Guerre*;

11. That all the emigrants who returned from Coblenz became domesticated in the castle of the Thuilleries, and that 'the infamous Bouille' had been seen there in the month of June;

12. That he had granted pensions to his *ci-devant* guards, disbanded in 1789, and to several of the French guards; and that he had granted 600 livres per annum to each of his body guards after their dismissal in 1792;

13. That

13. That he had bestowed a pension of 200,000 liv. per annum on the two sons of Mr. d'Artois, at Turin, after an act of accusation had been passed against their father;

And 14. That, notwithstanding the law against the emigrants, the declaration of war, and the severity of the punishment announced in the penal code, he had transmitted 3000 liv. to count Hamilton, who had accompanied him in his flight to Varennes.

Mr. Valazé, now enters into the question of *inviolability*. He looks upon this, to be a vice inherent in monarchy; but he affirms, although it was not defined by the constituent assembly, that it was never meant to be understood in its present perverted sense, as the responsibility of ministers would be but a feeble barrier to the treason of a king like Lewis XVI. *Inviolability*, in his opinion, was merely intended to shelter the prince from all vexatious inquiries relative to the measures adopted by him for carrying laws into execution; it could never set him above the law itself, for he, as first public functionary, was obliged to take an oath of obedience to it. If he then were forced to submit to the law, he surely was not permitted to infringe it. Certain punishments had been pronounced by the constitution, against certain offences which might be committed by a king: for instance, by Art. VI., if he did not formally oppose himself to a war undertaken in his name against the nation, and by Art. VII., if he left the kingdom, and did not return after a time fixed by the legislature, he should be considered as having abdicated the throne: but, in the first place, this would now cease to be a punishment, as royalty was abolished, and, in the next, Lewis had committed crimes unforeseen, and unprovided against in the constitutional code; for he had invited a foreign enemy to enter France, promoted divisions, feuds, and quarrels throughout its territories, and attempted to destroy that very constitution in which he now wished to find refuge and protection.

*Report and project of a decree, presented to the national convention, in the name of the committee of legislation, on the 7th of November, 1792, the first year of the republic. By John Mailhè, deputy from the department of Haut-Garonne.*

Mr. Mailhè here examines the three following questions:

Can Lewis XVI. be tried, for the crimes supposed to have been committed by him while sitting on a constitutional throne?

By whom ought he to be tried? Shall he be carried before the ordinary tribunals like a common citizen accused of treason against the state? Shall the right of sitting on judgment on him be delegated to a tribunal formed by the electoral assemblies of the eighty-three departments? Or shall the convention itself try him?

Shall the judgment be submitted to all the members of the republic reunited in assemblies of the districts, or in primary assemblies?

Mr. M. insists on the folly of punishing a king for his crimes by taking a sceptre from him, which had become odious in his eyes, merely because it was not of iron. He affirms the position to be *false*, that the government of France could not subsist without a king; and even if that were the case, he quotes the example of Sparta, and other ancient nations, to prove, that royalty might be maintained without the dangerous *ægis* of inviolability, 'for there, [says he] kings were obliged to submit themselves to the decision of popular tribunals, and their



their judgment and condemnation, instead of being detrimental to, were the surest guarantees of liberty.' *Inviolability* was a fiction, in consequence of which, the crimes of the chief of the executive power were punished in the persons of his agents; but if he entered into plots without the concurrence of his ordinary ministers, or without the participation of any *visible* assistants, then, and in that case, this fiction could not avail him, for there could not be any infraction of the law without a positive responsibility, and thus, he himself might be punished for all the crimes, which could not be brought home to his aiders and abettors. Mr. M. now enumerates those princes who had been tried and punished for the crimes committed against their subjects, *viz.* don Henry of Spain; Jean of Naples; several of the kings of France; don Alphonso of Portugal; the son of Gustavus Vasa; and Charles I; he then concludes by proposing a decree by which the national convention shall declare:

1. That Lewis XVI. may be tried;
2. That he shall be tried by the convention; and
3. That the members shall decide by open vote.

*Opinion of the citizen Morisson, deputy from the department of Vendée, &c. read in the national convention, on the 13th of November, 1792, the first year of the French republic.*

Mr. M. feels his heart penetrated with indignation against the multifarious treasons committed by Lewis XVI., but notwithstanding this, he thinks him absolved from them all by the very scandalous article in the penal code, which declares the person of the king sacred and inviolable, and exempts him from any other punishment but that of forfeiture. He concludes by proposing a decree for banishing Lewis Capet from the territories of the republic, and offering a reward of 500,000 livres to the first person who shall apprehend him, in case of re-entering them.

*Opinion of the citizen Saint-Just, deputy from the department of Aisne, concerning the trial of Lewis XVI., pronounced in the sitting of the 13th of November, 1792.*

Mr. St. Just thinks that the king may be tried, but he equally opposes the opinion of Mr. Morisson, who wished to shield him by means of his *inviolability*, and of the committee of legislation, who had proposed to sit in judgment upon him as a common citizen. He affirms that the social compact is a contract of the citizens with each other, and not with the government; that the contract entered into between the convention and the king made the obligation entirely binding on the side of the people, and not of their first magistrate, and this being equally unjust in morals, and in nature, was illegitimate, and consequently null and void. As the king had forfeited the only title by which he, or any prince, could pretend to sit upon the throne, *viz.* that of protecting the nation, he advised the convention to make haste, and decide upon his fate, as every citizen had the same right to take away his life, as Brutus had to sacrifice Cæsar.

Lewis was a Cataline, who had murdered the French in the same manner as his proto-type had butchered the Romans, for he had been profuse of their blood at the Bastille, at Nancy, at the *Champ de Mars*, at Tournai, and at the Thuilleries,

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After affirming that it was impossible 'to reign innocently,' Mr. St. J. declares himself astonished, 'to behold the axe trembling in their hand,' and shocked at the care taken for his preservation, when he recollected that Julius Cæsar was butchered in the open senate, without any other formality than thirty thrusts of a poniard, and without any other law than the liberty of Rome.

Kings were not to be tried by the common institutions of any country, for indeed none such any where exist. There was not any clause in the code of Numa for the condemnation of Tarquin, or in that of England for the execution of Charles I: they were tried by the law of nations, and punished accordingly: and it was thus that Lewis ought to suffer, for he had made secret levies of troops, employed magistrates, whom he had seduced to act under his own immediate direction, repeatedly dipped his hands in blood, and proscribed all the good and virtuous citizens. Mr. St. J. deemed an appeal to the people unnecessary, unless Lewis XVI. should be absolved by the tribunal before which he was tried.

*Opinion of Michael Azema, deputy from the department of Aude, member of the committee of legislation, &c., on the trial of Lewis Capet, the last of the French kings.*

Mr. Azema imagines the first idea of inviolability to have originated under a patriarchal government, and to be utterly inapplicable to the persons who now reign as kings. Those 'gods of clay,' by endeavouring to raise themselves above their equals, have ceased to be men, and become monsters; they pretend to *impunity*, but this idea is a phantom which has been dispelled by reason and philosophy, for a prince cannot reign but by the law; and this ought to be paramount over all, even over the very kings which it hath made.

As to Lewis, he could only be deemed inviolable in respect to the exercise of his royal functions, for with regard to them his ministers were responsible; but in regard to the personal actions of the king, it was intirely different, for as to any thing that he did of his own accord, and without being counter-signed, he could claim no privilege, that was not common to any other citizen. Laporte, the complainant victim of the crimes of Lewis, had been tried, condemned, and executed; and shall the accomplice fall, and the principal remain unpunished?

The constitution did not anticipate all the possible treasons of a king, and therefore had not provided against them: who would have imagined, continues Mr. A. 'that Lewis the perjured, who was always so ready to swear fidelity to the constitution, should have constantly carried in his pocket a holy and commodious bull from the despot of Rome, containing his pardon for the violation of all oaths, past, present, and to come?' He concludes by proposing the plan of a decree, for declaring that Lewis Capet, heretofore king of the French, having broken the social compact with the people who had made him king, dilapidated the public revenue, provoked a coalition of all the despots against the liberties of the French nation, disorganised the army, delivered up the frontier places to the enemy, and entered into a conspiracy for massacring all the friends of liberty and equality, and even the members of the convention, the said Lewis should be tried, and punishment should be instantly inflicted upon him, if condemned.

*Opinion*

*Opinion of Francis Robert, deputy from the department of Paris.*

Mr. R. congratulates the convention on the arrival of that day, when kings who had sat so long in judgment upon nations, were now in their turn to be tried by them. He affirms that Lewis XVI. had more crimes upon his head than all his predecessors put together; and in order to prove this, he refers to those victims who perished on that fatal day which introduced 'a poisoned germe of the house of Austria into France,' to the many prisoners who have perished in the dungeons of the Bastille; to the two thousand inhabitants of the *fauxbourg St. Antoine*, assassinated at one time; to the citizens massacred at Nîmes, at Nancy, at Montauban, in the colonies, in the *Champ de Mars*, and finally on the 10th of August. He looks upon that *inviolability*, by which a man is placed above the laws, to be a puerile sophism, and concludes by declaring, that Lewis may, and ought to be tried.

*Opinion of the citizen B. Gertoux, deputy from the department of Hautes-Pyrénées.*

It is here contended, that the *inviolability* of the hereditary representative of the nation was exactly of the same kind and nature with that of its elected representatives, and that this extended in no case beyond the exercise of their respective functions. After recapitulating the crimes of Lewis, whom he accuses of cherishing his former *garde de corps* while joined to the rebels, leagued against their country; of having endeavoured to ruin public credit by his attempt to lessen the reputation of assignats; &c. he concludes by proposing the convocation of a high national court to try him, for he affirms, that the convention was incompetent; first, because the members were at once a party against him, and his judges; and secondly, because every accumulation of the legislative and judicial functions was tyranny.

*Opinion of the citizen Gregoire, deputy from the department of Loirz and Cher.*

Mr. Gregoire asserts, that posterity will be astonished at hearing, that it should ever have been a question, whether a whole nation possesses the privilege of delegating its power, and can sit in judgment on its first servant. In addition to the kings already quoted, who have been deposed by their subjects, he mentions Conrad, king of the Romans, the emperor Henry IV., the emperor Adolphus, king Venceslas, and Christiern II. of Denmark, but he observes, that the nations who dethroned these tyrants had not a compact similar to that of the French. After this he undertakes to prove, first, That any constitutional king of the French (putting Lewis XVI. entirely out of the question) may be tried for all crimes unconnected with the exercise of royalty. And secondly, that, even supposing the king could not be tried by any constituted authority, this prerogative would disappear before the authority of the nation. He observes, that the question of *inviolability* was warmly discussed in the constituent assembly, and had for its partisans all those base men, who, prostituting the august character of legislators, had substituted in its place that of minions of the court, who wished to drain the funds of the civil list, and under another name become *mayors of the palace*. Beneath the tutelary shade of *inviolability*, they found the ready means of concealing their crimes; for a king, whom no law can reach, would easily cover with thisegis the accomplices of actions criminal in the eyes of reason, but



but innocent in the eye of the constitution. It was in vain they were told, that a king could not be inviolable, unless he were at once impeccable and infallible! They pretended that this *inviolability* was a fiction luckily invented for the support of liberty: thus, the happiness of a people was to depend on a fiction, and not on the immutable principles of nature!

The person of the king, said they, is indivisible: inviolability ought therefore to extend to all his actions. The answer to this is easy; the legislators are equally inviolable by the constitution, but this extends no farther than their opinions in their legislative capacity; ambassadors are exactly in the same situation by the law of nations, but with regard solely to the objects of their mission; and yet notwithstanding this, their persons are indivisible: now according to this mode of reasoning, their inviolability ought to extend to every thing, or the inviolability of a king, ought not to shield him from the punishment due to personal acts, more than any of the mandatories of the people.— In short, the inviolability of a king, and the responsibility of ministers, are closely, intimately, and necessarily connected with each other; and whenever the one disappears, the other ceases: it therefore follows, that inviolability ought to be confined to acts of administration, or that ministers should be responsible even for personal actions; for it is absolutely necessary that the law should be enforced, and that wherever there may be a crime, there should also be a punishment: in short, every idea of an absolute inviolability is monstrous, for this would be to declare perfidy, ferocity, and cruelty inviolable.

But even supposing for a moment, that this much quoted *inviolability* is absolute, then Mr. G. contends that it must admit of an exception, and disappear before the national will, else these absurdities must follow; viz. that the king is every thing; that the sovereignty is alienable; and that the nation can delegate a greater power than it retains.

Mr. G. now passes on to the examination of the question of *abdication*, and affirms, that the king expressly abdicated royalty at the very moment when he committed certain crimes mentioned in the constitution; that from that instant he re-entered into the common class of citizens, and might be tried as one of them for all posterior acts.

After recounting the perjuries and treasons of Lewis, and affirming that kings were never capable of repentance; the orator concludes, by giving it as his opinion, that Lewis XVI. ought to be instantly tried.

Mr. Gerevois declared his opinion to be in favour of banishment.

Mr. Simon Coren Fustier thought, that the late king ought to be tried according to the strict letter of the law.

Mr. Eustachius-Benedict Asselin was of the same opinion.

*Speech of Thomas Paine.*

Mr. P. was of opinion, that Lewis XVI. ought to be instantly tried; this idea he said was not suggested to him by a spirit of vengeance, for nothing could be farther from his mind, but because the measure appeared to be just, legitimate, and conformable to sound policy. If Lewis be innocent, he ought to be enabled to prove his innocence; if guilty, the national will ought to declare, whether he shall be pardoned or punished. A conspiracy had been formed among certain royal robbers, which not only menaced the liberties of France, but of  
all

all nations. Every thing seemed to demonstrate that Lewis formed a part of this *horde* of conspirators; this man was now in their power; and he was the only one of the whole *gang* whom they had yet secured. In short, he considered Lewis in the same point of view as the first two thieves who were arrested for plundering the *garde meuble*; they might impeach their associates. There were two kinds of conspirators; those who had appeared in the field of battle with arms in their hands, and those who brought them secret and clandestine succour; among the latter he classed a certain great northern potentate, who acted on this occasion, not only as a king, but an elector.

‘In regard to inviolability [adds he,] I could wish that this word were never mentioned. If seeing nothing in Lewis XVI. but a man of a narrow and contracted mind, badly educated like all his equals, subject, as I am told, to frequent inebriety, and imprudently replaced, by the constituent assembly, on a throne, for which he was not adapted, some compassion should be evinced towards him in the end; this compassion ought to be the effect of national magnanimity, and not the result of that burlesque idea of a pretended inviolability.’

Mr. Fauchet (bishop of Calvados) thought, that to spare the life of a wicked prince like Lewis XVI. would be a greater punishment than death itself. Mr. Faure was of the same opinion.

Mr. Manuel was for an immediate trial; when a king died, he said, ‘there was but one man less in the world.’

Mr. Carra, thought that the convention ought instantly to pass sentence of death against Lewis Capet.

Mr. Louvet objected to the trial of Lewis by the convention, and wished to substitute a jury chosen from the departments.

Mr. Marat was decidedly in favour of a trial by the convention, and a capital punishment.

We have now noticed the principal arguments made use of by the deputies, whose speeches are contained in the first two volumes of this work, and shall be equally careful to give a full account of the remainder, as soon as the other three are imported into this country.

ART. IX. *The Trial at large of Lewis XVI., late King of France. Containing a most complete and authentic Narrative of every interesting and important Circumstance attending the Accusation, Trial, Defence, Sentence, Execution, &c. of this unfortunate Monarch; communicated in a Series of Letters, by a Member of the late National Assembly, to a Member of the British Parliament. To which is subjoined, a Copy of his Majesty's Will. 8vo. 128 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Miller. 1793.*

THIS is an abridged account of the events, &c., recorded in the preceding article.

ART. X. *Reports of Cases argued and adjudged in the Courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. To which are added, some Special Cases in the Court of Chancery, and before the Delegates. By the Right Hon. Sir John Comyns, Knt., late Lord chief Baron of his Majesty's Court of Exchequer; with Tables of the Cases, and of the principal Matters. The second Edition*  
VOL. XV. F f *corrected,*

*corrected, with Marginal Notes and References to former and later Reports, and other Books of Authority.* By Samuel Rose, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. 2 Vols. Royal Octavo. About 450 pages each. Price 18s. boards. Whieldon and Butterworth.

SOME of the cases contained in the first part of this work, particularly those adjudged in the Court of King's Bench, have already been reported by serjeants Salkeld and Cartbaw, Comterback, and lord Raymond; most of the original was written in law French, and translated by Mr. Comyns, who superintended the publication of the first edition. The care and attention bestowed by Mr. Rose in the present edition, will be best conceived from his own preface.

'This work of chief baron *Comyns* is a posthumous publication, and is therefore less complete than it would have been, if it had received the corrections of the learned and ingenious author. The liberty has been taken, on this account, of altering the text in those instances, in which it was found unintelligible or obscure. Where *sir John Comyns* has referred to a book generally, which is an usual practice with him, the particular passages to which it was supposed that he must allude, have, with two or three exceptions, been ascertained: a measure which will save the reader as much trouble as it has imposed upon the editor. The marginal abstracts were, for the most part, very insufficient, and were calculated rather to mislead than to inform those who imagined they deserved any confidence. All of this description have been expunged, and others which did not appear chargeable with the same inconvenience, have been substituted.

'The table of the principal matters in the original edition, was so imperfect, that it appeared indispensably necessary to supply one which was fuller and more comprehensive. This part of the work, the editor flatters himself, will be found useful in proportion to the labour with which it has been attended.

'Care has been always taken to point out where the same case has been reported by contemporary writers; and, where this circumstance is omitted by the author, the notes have universally shown in what manner it has eventually been disposed of. Where the law upon any subject treated in the following pages has been controverted by later decisions, or overturned by subsequent statutes, the editor has, in those instances to which his knowledge extended, mentioned the alterations which have taken place.

'Thus has he, in a particular manner, made himself responsible for what is contained in the margin, and in the notes; and if, on any occasion, they serve to illustrate and explain what would otherwise have remained intricate and perplexed, he will feel himself sufficiently rewarded for any difficulty which he may have encountered in this undertaking.'

ART. XI. *Decisions of the Court of King's Bench upon the Laws relating to the Poor.* Originally published by Edmund Bott, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Now revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged; with Tables of the Cases; and a complete Digest of the principal Matters; the Third Edition, in which the Statutes,



*Statutes; the reported Decisions from the Reign of Queen Elizabeth to Michaelmas Term the Thirty-third of George the Third; and many Cases never before published on this Subject, are properly arranged; and the whole System of the Poor-Laws placed in a clear and perspicuous Point of View: By Francis Const, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. 2 Vols. Royal Octavo. About 600 pages each. Price 1l. 5s. in boards. Whieldon and Butterworth. 1793.*

No branch of our laws seems to be more complex, or more liable to misconstruction, than that which has the management and regulation of the poor for its objects. Indeed the courts teem with litigations on this subject, and the decisions are so frequent, and so numerous, that every attempt to arrange and record them must be esteemed a benefit, not only to the profession, but to the whole community. It is thus that Mr. Const speaks of his own labours.

' The original intention of the editor was merely to add the *new decisions* to the collection of cases before published by Mr. Bott; but as upon revising the whole matter, it appeared that many of the new decisions could not be included under the former arrangement of the work, he has thought it necessary to recompile it. In the course of this labour, the cases have been compared with the original reporter's, where such reports are published, and the errors, where any errors occurred, corrected. The acts of parliament have also been collated with the statutes, in which the last edition, by Mr. Serjeant Runnington, has been resorted to, as well as the former one, by Mr. Ruffhead. The general titles of the former edition are still preserved; but the several divisions of the chapters have been changed, and many new chapters added; if however any case should on inspection, appear to be misplaced, the editor trusts that the difficulty of arranging such a multiplicity of cases, frequently confused, and sometimes contradictory, will be recollected.

' Although, in this edition, there are nearly one thousand cases more than were before published, yet there are some to be found in the books, which from their want of correctness and authenticity have been left unnoticed; some of the cases also have been repeated, in order to bring the several points they contain within the divisions to which these points respectively belong: but it is hoped, that no case has been unnecessarily inserted, nor any omitted that can be material to a complete knowledge of the subject.

' Among the additional cases are many which have never before appeared in print; these, as well as some others, which vary from the reports already in print, are distinguished by the words "Editor's M S S." and relate principally to two periods, namely, from the reign of queen Anne to the end of George the second; and from Michaelmas term in the twenty-second year, to Michaelmas term in the twenty-sixth year of George the third.

' During the time this work has necessarily taken in passing through the press, some points were decided in the courts, and two acts of parliament were passed by the legislature, on the sub-

ject of the poor laws, which it was too late to insert in their proper places; they have therefore been placed in an appendix at the end of each volume; but in the digest prefixed to the work, these cases are classed under the several titles to which they respectively belong.

'To render the work as full and complete as possible, the statute of 22 George III. c. 83. which gives authority to incorporated societies to maintain and provide for their own poor, in the particular method described in the act, is subjoined to the first volume.'

ART. XII. *Lettre de M. de la Rochefoucauld Liancourt, a M. de Malesherbes, Défenseur du Roi. Letter from Mr. de la Rochefoucauld Liancourt, to Mr. de Malesherbes, one of the King's Counsel.* 8vo. 14 pages. Price 6d. Herbert. 1793.

MR. ROCHEFOUCAULD LIANCOURT, who, if we be not greatly mistaken, was formerly a duke, (a circumstance which he modestly conceals) affirms, that the act declaratory of the crimes of Lewis XIV. offers a complete apology for the conduct of that unfortunate prince. He very feelingly deprecates the punishment of the late king; because 'he is a Frenchman who still wishes that his country may not be so atrociously dishonoured; because he was intimately acquainted with the goodness of his majesty's heart; because he had attentively observed him in every different situation since the beginning of his reign; and because he does not think that more rectitude, goodness, and devotion to the public welfare, or less attachment to self-interest, could have been evinced by any man now in existence.'

After paying many compliments to the talents of Mr. Malesherbes, who had been chosen by Lewis XVI. as one of his counsel, and stating that he intended to preserve his own labours, on this subject, as documents that might serve to elucidate the history of the present times, Mr. R. L. proceeds to recapitulate some particulars known to himself, which he thinks highly honourable to the late king.

He begins by observing, that Lewis was ignorant of the capture of the Bastille on the 14th of July, 1789, at eleven o'clock at night; and that when he informed his majesty of that event at nine o'clock the next morning, he exclaimed—'What have I done that the people should rise against me? Let them look along with me into my conscience; they will soon discover there, whether they ever had a better friend, and if since the first moment that I had a right to occupy myself with their happiness, my heart has ever felt a different sensation.'

On his return from the unfortunate expedition to Varennes, the then monarch addressed himself in these words to our author: 'Ah! how much have I suffered during the last six days! If I had attained the end of my journey, the people would have seen whether I merited their suspicion and injustice: I have beheld several persons massacred by my side; many worthy and innocent men are compromised on my account! How much have I been affected, and how much do I feel!' In reply to this, Mr.

Mr. R. L. observed to his majesty, that the advisers of his flight had been cruelly deceived in their calculations; and that, owing to this event, the Assembly had acquired a prodigious increase of credit and authority. 'Let them keep this authority [rejoins he], and may they convert it to the happiness of the people, to the return of peace, of tranquillity, of public safety; I shall then be the first to bless them.'

It is asserted, that a very curious memorial was found among the papers discovered at the Thuilleries, containing an account of the life, the plans, the obstacles which he had to encounter, and an open and candid avowal of the very errors of Lewis XVI., drawn up by his own hand.

This letter is dated from Bury, in Suffolk, on the very day preceding the execution of the unfortunate monarch.

ART. XIII. *Reasons for wishing to preserve the Life of Lewis Capet, as delivered to the National Convention.* By Thomas Paine, Member of the National Convention, and Author of Common Sense, A Letter to the Abbe Raynal, &c. 8vo. 19 pages. Price 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

MR. PAINE begins his address to the Convention by avowing his hatred and abhorrence of monarchy, an abhorrence which originated in principles of reason and conviction, and could not be driven from his bosom but with life. He had voted that Lewis should be tried, because it was necessary to afford proofs to the world, of the perfidy, corruption, and abomination of the monarchical system; and such had been the evidence adduced, that monarchy appeared as a centre 'around which is united every species of corruption;' and 'it was now demonstrated that the kingly trade is no less destructive of all morality in the human breast, than the trade of an executioner is destructive of its sensibility.'

'Nevertheless, [adds he] I am inclined to think, that if Lewis Capet had been born in an obscure condition, had he lived within the circle of an amiable and respectable neighbourhood, at liberty to practise the duties of domestic life, had he been thus situated, I cannot believe that he would have shewn himself destitute of social virtues: we are in a moment of fermentation like this, naturally little indulgent to his vices, or rather to those of monarchical governments; we regard them with additional horror and indignation, not that they are more heinous than those of his predecessors, but because our eyes are now open, and the veil of delusion at length withdrawn; yet the lamentable degraded state to which he is actually reduced, is surely far less imputable to him than to the Constituent Assembly, which, of its own authority, without consent or advice of the people, restored him to the throne.'

After thus affirming that the Constituent Assembly was more blameable in restoring the sceptre to his hands, covered as he was with perjuries and treasons, than the unfortunate prisoner, Lewis Capet, and observing that he himself had formed one of five members of a republican club, which had made every ef-



fort in order to prevent the possibility of the calamitous event, Mr. P. proceeds as follows :

‘ But abstracted from every other consideration, there is one circumstance in his life which ought to cover, or at least to palliate, a great number of his transgressions, and this very circumstance affords the French nation a blessed occasion of extricating itself from the yoke of kings, without defiling itself in the impurities of their blood. It is to France alone I know, that the United States of America owe that support which enabled them to shake off the unjust and tyrannical yoke of \*\*\*\*\*. The ardour and zeal which she displayed to provide both men and money, were the natural consequences of a thirst for liberty. But as the nation at that time, restrained by the shackles of her own government, could only act by means of a monarchical organ, this organ, whatever in other respects the object might be, certainly performed a good, a great action. Let then these United States be the safeguard and asylum of Lewis Capet. There, hereafter, far removed from the miseries and crimes of royalty; he may learn, from the constant aspect of public prosperity, that the true system of government consists, not in kings, but in fair, equal, and honourable representation.

‘ In relating this circumstance, and in submitting this proposition, I consider myself a citizen of both countries. I submit it as a citizen of America who feels the debt of gratitude which he owes to every Frenchman. I submit it also as a man, who, although the enemy of kings, cannot forget that they are subject to human frailties. I support my proposition as a citizen of the French republic, because it appears to me the best, the most politic measure that can be adopted.

‘ As far as my experience in public life extends, I have ever observed, that the great mass of the people are invariably just, both in their intentions, and in their object; but the true method of accomplishing that object, does not always shew itself in the first instance. For example, the English nation had groaned under the despotism of the Stuarts. Hence Charles I. lost his life, yet Charles II. was restored to all the plenitude of power which his father lost. Forty years had not expired, when the same family strove to re-establish their ancient oppression; so the nation then banished from its territories the whole race. The remedy was effectual. The Stuart family sunk into obscurity, confounded itself with the multitude, and is at length extinct. The French nation, more enlightened than England was at that time, has carried her measures of government to a greater length. France is not satisfied with exposing the guilt of the monarch; she has penetrated into the vices and horrors of the monarchy. She has shewn them clear as day-light, and for ever crushed that infernal system: and he, whoever he may be, that should ever dare to reclaim those rights, would be regarded, not as a pretender, but punished as a traitor.’ Mr. P. concludes by a very humane motion for ‘ abolishing the punishment of death entirely, and also for detaining Lewis Capet’ until the end  
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of the war, after which period, he proposes that he and his family shall be banished from all the territories of the republic.

ART. XIV. *Considerations on the Case of the confined Debtors in this Kingdom.* By C. W. Johnson, of the Hon. Society of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 45 pages. Price 1s. boards. Stewart. 1793.

MR. JOHNSON very feelingly, and very justly, laments, that the legislature of this country has been callous in respect to the claims of the insolvent debtor, and that every attempt to relieve them has, of late, proved abortive.

'The present debtor and creditor system [says he] has, instead of lessening, produced great corruption. A principle of carelessness, if not dishonesty, steals imperceptibly on men when they reflect how egregiously they have been duped in most transactions. Lawful demands pass unheeded, where oppressive ones have been enforced. Young men of fashion, when half ruined by leeches and usurers, become insensible of just obligations. This neglect is not surprising, nor is it to be wondered at, that they rank all alike, when such temptations are hung out, such prodigious usury exacted, and these covenants so fraudulently, yet craftily maintained. If men of fortune experience such distresses, with what additional weight do they not fall on the lower order of society! The imprudent mechanic, often from trifling jealousies, is by his master consigned to prison and poverty. In the last session, mention was made by a noble peer (who, like another Howard, has proved himself the citizen of the world and friend of mankind) of a woman confined forty years for a debt of twenty pounds. There is undeniable evidence of another woman confined two years for a debt of eight pounds, and her groats during this period amounted to more than the original debt for which she was imprisoned.'

It is stated, that there are nearly 12,000 persons confined in this kingdom for debt, and that, besides imprisonment, they are liable to a variety of other hardships and impositions. This must inspire every humane man with the most melancholy ideas, and induce him to join with the author now before us, in deprecating the evils arising from this odious custom, and attempting its abolition. s.

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THEOLOGY. POLITICO-THEOLOGY.

ART. XV. *A Treatise upon the Authenticity of the Scriptures, and the Truth of the Christian Religion.* 8vo. 278 pages. Price 5s. sewed. Cadell. 1792.

THOUGH the author's name does not appear in the title page of this work, we learn from the dedication, that it is written by the able and learned Mr. Bryant. The design of the present volume being to present the public with a general and popular view of the evidences of religion, natural and revealed, the reader will not expect that display of erudition, which the

writer s on all proper occasions so able to make ; but he will naturally look for many indirect proofs of various reading and extensive knowledge, as well as for continual marks of good sense, and of a correct and elegant taste. And in this expectation he will not be disappointed. The path which Mr. B. has taken has indeed been frequently trodden. The subject has been handled by many able masters ; yet it still affords sufficient scope for the display of ability, and what is more important, sufficient opportunity for rendering an useful service to the public ; and Mr. B., notwithstanding some particular exceptions which may be made to the work, has on the whole executed his design in a manner which will not fail to add to his well-earned reputation.

The work opens with a clear and forcible statement of the leading proofs of the being and attributes of God. Though elaborate metaphysical discussions are judiciously avoided, the doctrine of the supreme intelligence is very properly contrasted with the atheistical systems of nature. In treating on the knowledge of God in the gentile world, Mr. B. has not perhaps allowed so much to the natural powers of the human mind, as might have been done on the full authority of history, and without at all depreciating the value of revelation. Mr. B. is particularly displeased with Mr. Pope for the first stanza of his universal prayer, which, he says, infers that all rites however base, and all idolatry, however shocking, relate ultimately to the worship of the one true God. But is it not probable, that the grossest idolatry of gentilism comprehended imperfect conceptions of a supreme Being, and that the worship of imaginary divinities originated in the idea and belief of divine providence ? What account can be given of the universal prevalence of religious notions and practices so reasonable, as the supposition that man is taught by nature, to acknowledge a superior power, and that, by whatever name he is called, he is adored in every age and in every clime ? If some of our missionaries have not been able to teach men religion, Mr. B. has supplied the proper solution of the difficulty. ' The christian religion is a system of reason ; and many of these missionaries seem to have had nothing rational in their process.'

The second part treats concerning the canon of scripture, and the authorities in its favour. Here our learned author first mentions some of the leading proofs of the genuineness of the books of the Old Testament ; and remarks the correspondence between the present state of the jews and the prophecies of their dispersion, and the necessity of supposing a supernatural influence to have induced the jewish prophets, in opposition to the strongest prejudices, to predict the calling of the gentiles. A similar necessity he observes respecting the apostles, and the first converts to christianity. On the prospects afforded to the first proselytes, he thus remarks. p. 55.

' Let us consider what encouragement was offered to the first converts, when they were to embrace christianity. After a total renunciation of the gods of their fathers, and many worldly gratifications, to which they had been accustomed, they were invited to take up the cross of Christ ; and to undergo pains and penalties ;



penalties; shame, exile, and death itself for the sake of the gospel. They however were won over by the beauty of holiness, and the sanctity and reasonableness of the word of God: and in consequence of it underwent the most grievous persecutions, as the gentile writers witness: and as we also are more fully informed by those of the church. Hence Athenagoras, in his excellent apology to the emperors Marcus Antoninus and Commodus, mentions how duly justice was administered to all other people: but if a christian was accused, there was no trial: no appeal. The name of christian was often sufficient: and the word was—to the beasts—to the lions. Thus the poor victim, without any process, was hurried away to the savage monsters to be devoured. Ten, or more, grievous persecutions, did the christians suffer: and yet the word of God prevailed. It may, I know, be said, that every sect, and schism, encreases by persecution. But it is an egregious mistake. Undue oppression, and severity, may sometimes inflame peoples minds; and controul beget opposition. But when persecution extends to acts of universal cruelty and massacre, human nature cannot stand it. Christianity was introduced into Japan: and the converts are by some writers said to have amounted to many myriads. The last remains, after they had seen the far greater part without mercy cut off, took shelter in the city of Samabrava. But the Japanese, assisted with cannon by the Dutch, took the place, and put them all to the sword. Ask now, what is become of christianity in Japan? It is totally extinct. And by what means? By persecution. Cast an eye upon Spain, where the protestant religion, like a salutary plant, began once to shew itself. How was it suppressed? By fire and faggot, administered by that horrid tribunal, called the Holy Office. By command of this unmerciful court three most excellent men, Cazala, Constantino, Ægidio, were burnt alive: and those, whoever they might be, that favoured their opinion, were too much terrified to proceed in their path. What then ruined the reformation in Spain? Persecution. A tree may be pruned, and lopped, and sprout out more luxuriantly. But when ruined to the root, it will never, without a miracle, produce either fruit or flower.

The principal prophecies relating to the Messiah are next enumerated, their completion illustrated, and their certainty ascertained. A survey is taken of the leading particulars of our Saviour's ministry, miracles, doctrine and character. The external and internal evidence of the truth of his religion is stated; and various testimonies in its favour are drawn from gentile writers, particularly Julian, Celsus, Porphyry, Pliny, and Tacitus. From this part of the work, we shall extract the following testimony from Julian. Speaking of the enemies of christianity, the author says,

P. 132. 'They neither could deny the sacred histories, nor the miracles, which they describe. Of this we have a remarkable instance in the invective of the emperor Julian. *Jesus*, says he, *who made a few proselytes from the dregs of the people, has not been known by name much above three hundred years: and during*  
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*his whole life did nothing worthy of being recorded: unless the curing of some halt and blind people; and exorcising some demoniacs, at the villages of Bethsaida, and Bethany, may be ranked among actions of consequence. This is by no means fairly represented; but it is sufficient, that he allows the wonderful facts: and shews, that the worst enemies of Christ, and his gospel, could not deny these truths. Of the number, and greatness of the operations we are better judges than he was.*

• He mentions the evangelists by name, and quotes many passages from them: as well as from the prophets. Among others he treats of the first chapter of St. John; and of Christ being the word of God, and of the word being made flesh, and the acceptance in which it was at that time understood. This is repeated soon after: when he upbraids the christians, with too much truth, for worshipping at the tombs of persons departed: a custom, which at that time had taken place. *If, says he, Christ told you, that sepulchres were full of uncleanness: why do you choose those places to offer up your prayers to God?* He shews great inveteracy to our Saviour, as may be seen in his epistles to the Alexandrians. *They who nursed your city like a tender legitimate daughter, did not bring it to its present amplitude by the preaching of Jesus: nor did they produce that polity, under which it is happily directed, by the doctrines of the execrable galileans.* Under this name he continually speaks of the christians. And having thus set aside Christ, he treats of the sun, as the great and beneficent deity, and of the moon, by which all things were produced:—and then says—*Neither of these have ye the confidence to worship. But this Jesus, whom neither ye, nor your fathers, ever saw, you maintain to be God, and the logos, or word.* After having mentioned the jews, or hebrews, he tells the christians, that they never imitated them in holiness of life: *But what you copy from them is their fury and bitterness in overturning temples, and altars. And you murder not only those of our persuasion, who follow the religion of their forefathers; but those also, who like yourselves have wandered from the truth: and whom ye esteem hereticks, because they do not offer the same dirges to the dead. But these are your own devices. For neither Jesus, nor Paul, gave you any commission to act in this manner.* It is certain that an evil spirit began to operate among christians in these days: and in some places there had been outrages committed, which it would be in vain to palliate. But Julian, though no friend, yet distinguishes between the law and the abuse of the law: and undesignedly pays a true compliment to Christ and his apostle.

• He speaks however of the christians as persons in general of holy life: and desires his people to copy after them. He mentions their charity: by which he says solely they have supported *their base system.* In his letter to Arfacius he begs, that their example may be followed. *Why must we rest in what has been done, and not proceed to those advantages, by which that base religion (of the Galileans) has been promoted? I mean their charity, and benevolence to strangers; their care about the funerals of their friends; and the appearance of sanctity, that they put on: all which we ought*  
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*July to observe. It is quite shameful, when we do not see a single jew begging, and when those detestable galileans, not only take care of their own brethren, but extend their charity to those of our persuasion; that our own people should want that assistance from us, to which they have a claim.* In his epistle to Theodorus he takes notice of their faith, and in flexible fortitude: and says, that those, who were proficient in this school of iniquity, shewed such zeal, that they were ready to die for the cause in which they were engaged: and that they would undergo the extremes of poverty and hunger, rather than partake of any forbidden food. Notwithstanding his repeated abuses of their worship; he allows them some farther merit, as we find in the same epistle.—*After all, these (galileans) have in some degree a proper sense of religion: for they worship no abject and vulgar Deity; but that God, who is truly all-powerful, and all-good, by whose direction the sensible world is conducted: the same, I am persuaded, that we also worship under different names. They therefore seem to me to act very consistently, as they are not transgressors of the laws; but only err in paying their worship to this one God to the neglect of all the rest: and in thinking, that we only, whom they stile the gentiles, are precluded from his influence, &c.* Thus we find, that truth, will sometimes, like lightning from a dark cloud, force its way: and notwithstanding the prejudices, and inveteracy, of this unhappy apostate, he affords strong evidence in favour both of the gospel and its votaries. We have seen above that he mentions the Evangelists and St. Paul by name, and quotes from their writings, and from the writings of the prophets; and affords us his opinion of their being undoubtedly genuine. He recommends the christians for their decent appearance as examples to his own priests and people: and acknowledges that they were obedient to the laws, worshippers of God the creator of all things, and only deficient in not paying adoration to the two luminaries, and to the other deities of the gentile world: making that a failing, which was a virtue. Lastly, he mentions their faith and fortitude, in maintaining the religion of Christ: which no pains, nor penalties, could make them renounce.

To these gentile testimonies is added an interesting account of the more early persecutions; and both Pliny and Trajan, in opposition to the opinion of Mr. Melmoth, are maintained to have been guilty of great injustice and inhumanity.

In the second part of the work, Mr. B. represents the uncertainty which prevailed among the most learned of the philosophers, and the influence which this had on the morals of mankind; gives a comparative view of the christian and mohammedan religions, and answers several popular objections against revelation. Among the difficulties of which solutions are offered, is that drawn from the opinion that the negroes are a separate race of men. Mr. B's. solution is this. p. 268.

‘It has pleased God to give to all families, or nations, some particular marks, by which they are distinguished from their neighbours. But they differ still farther from those at a great distance in consequence of the heat or cold which they experience; and the climate under which they live. If we take people from the extremities, at a very great



great interval of latitude, and compare them together, they may possibly seem to persons unexperienced quite different beings. But if we approach from the one to the other by degrees, and observe the different nations, who furnish the interval, there will appear a just gradation, and the variation will be found no more, than might be expected from manner of life, and situation. A Dane, Saxon, and Englishman, of the north, will be found in general very similar in feature and complexion. If we descend to the south of France, we shall meet with people less fair: and if we pass to Portugal, the natives will appear upon comparison much darker, and of different features. Cross over to Morocco and Tafilat, they become more and more swart. If we proceed beyond the desert of Zara to the tropic, we meet with people quite black, but with straight and floating hair. Farther within the tropics, and on each side of the line are perfect negroes; people for the most part of singular clumsy and bloated features, and of the darkest hue of any; also with woolly and frizled hair. The whole of these variations depends upon situation, and climate. The baron de Pauw says therefore very truly—*Que le genre humain ait eu une tige, ou qu'il en ait eu plusieurs, question inutile que des physiciens ne devoient jamais agiter en Europe. Il est certain que le climat seul produit toutes les variétés, qu'on observe parmi les hommes.—Le teint plus ou moins obscur, plus ou moins foncé, des habitants, qui essuient ces différentes températures de l'air entre les tropiques, prouve donc, indépendamment de toute autre démonstration, que le climat seul colorie les substances les plus intimes du corps humain.—*For his opinion he gives very good reasons from the situation and heat experienced by the different nations in those parts.

The Egyptians acknowledged themselves to be of the race of Mizraim; and from that person their country was denominated. They therefore had no connection with the people on the western coast of Africa, nor bore any relation to them. Now we are told, that the natives of the lowest part of Egypt were dark; and those higher up, and nearer the sun, darker: but those of the upper region approached to black, and woolly hair. Hence this characteristic was not confined to any one race of men. This is farther proved by many of the islanders visited by our late voyagers, and particularly from the observations of captain Cook, and Dr. Forster. They speak of a great difference in respect to complexion, stature, and hair, among people of the same place: which they say depended upon their being more or less exposed, and the particular diet which they used. This was observable at Otaehite. The latter writer says of the New Caledonians, *They are all of a swarthy colour, their hair is crisped but not very woolly—their faces round, with thick lips and wide mouths.—The inhabitants of Tauna, are almost of the same swarthy colour as the former; only a few had a clearer complexion, and in these the tips of their hair were of a yellowish brown. The hair and beards of the rest were all black and crisp, and in some woolly.—The natives of Mellicollo border the nearest upon the tribe of Monkeys.—The hair is in the greater part of them woolly and frizled: their complexion is sooty: their features harsh: the cheek bone and face broad.* Captain Carteret describes the natives of Egmont island, as black and woolly headed.

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He describes another island, where *the people were black and woolly headed, like the negroes of Africa*. Many more instances might be produced: but these will suffice to shew, that this difference of hair and complexion, and the other anomalies, with which we find it accompanied, are not confined to any particular race of men. For they are to be found among people, that never had any connexion with the coast of Guinea, or Negroland: on the contrary, they are as far removed from it, as any people upon earth can be: whole continents come between.

The variation therefore in respect to complexion, form, and feature depends in a great measure upon the heat and cold experienced, and the way of life to which people accustom themselves. And there are other occult causes, with which we are unacquainted, and by which a variation in the species of all animals is produced. Hence it happens, that people, however distinct, become in time like the natives, among whom they settle, however separate they may keep themselves. This is manifest from a colony of Jews at Cochin, upon the coast of Malabar; who came there according to Hamilton as early as the captivity under Nebuchadnezzar. Thus much is certain, the era is so far back, that they know not now the time of their arrival. The Jews originally were a fair people; but these of whom we are speaking, are become in all respects like the Indians, among whom they reside. They consisted formerly of 80,000 families: but are now reduced to 4000. Mr. Bate, a clergyman, who had a son in the East Indies, made application to have some particulars of their history. *I wrote over to the coast of Malabar, to know what tradition the jews have retained, as to the time of their settlement at Cochin, but had no satisfactory answer. Ezekiel, the Rabbin of the synagogue, did indeed send me a transcript of their copper plate, hung up in their synagogue. 'Tis written in the Malabar language, put into common Hebrew characters; interlined with a literal version in Hebrew; with an Hebrew paraphrase upon that literal version. But I can find no date of their settlement there: only a grant from a Malabar prince called Schirin Perimal, i. e. Prince Schirin, to allow them to settle there, with certain privileges. Of these jews he farther says, that they are now grown as black, as the other Malabarians, who are hardly a shade lighter than those of Guinea, Benin, or Angola: And he very truly insists, that this is a discovery, which clearly proves, that the different complexions of the different sons of Noah may be occasioned by difference of climate, air, food, water, or other natural causes. It is said, in conformity to the account above, that the Portuguese, who have been settled upon the coast of Angola for three centuries, and somewhat more, are become absolute negroes. Of this we are assured by the abbe de Manet, who was in that part of the world in the year 1764; and baptized several of their children. He is quoted by Mr. de Pauw, who gives us this farther information.—Quant aux descendants des premiers Portugais, qui vinrent fixer leur demeure dans cette partie du monde vers l'an 1450, ils sont devenus des nègres tres-achevés pour le coloris, la laine de la tête, de la barbe, et les traits de la physionomie, quoiqu'ils ayent d'ailleurs retenu les points plus essentiel d'une Christianisme dégénéré, et conservé la langue du Portugal, corrompue, à la vérité, par différentes dialectes Africains.*



' The like is mentioned by Mr. Moore in his account of the river Gambia. He takes notice of some of the same nation, who have resided for above three centuries near the Mundingoes, and differ so little from them, as to be called negroes. This however they resent, though they are not easily to be distinguished.

' From hence we may be satisfied, that the negroes are by no means a different species of men.'

We have no doubt that the public will esteem themselves much indebted to Mr. B. for this able defence of religion; but we may be allowed to intimate, that the work would have been still more valuable if the author had been less sparing of those authorities which he could so easily have produced, on the subject of the authenticity of the canon of scripture. Such references might have been of great use to young persons who wish to obtain a more thorough knowledge of the subject, than can be obtained from popular abstracts.

The profits of this work are given to the society for the propagation of the gospel.

ART. XVI. *A Letter to Mr. Bryant; occasioned by his late Remarks on Mr. Pope's Universal Prayer.* By Percival Stockdale. 8vo. 40 p. Price 1s. Ridgway. 1793.

MR. BRYANT having, in his "Treatise on the Authenticity of the Scriptures and the Truth of the Christian Religion," represented the first stanzas of Pope's Universal Prayer as denoting, that 'all rites of religion, however base, and all idolatry, however gross and shocking, related ultimately to the worship of the one true God;' Mr. Stockdale undertakes to show, that this is an unfair construction of the poet's meaning, and that the leading truths which impressed the poet, and which he meant to impress upon his readers at the opening of his Universal Prayer were, that the idea and belief of the Supreme Being have prevailed in every age and country, under all the different titles which have been applied to him, and the different rites by which he has been worshipped. The propriety of this interpretation, and the agreement of the poet's ideas with the universal history of mankind, Mr. Stockdale has, we think, sufficiently established, though perhaps with more diffusion of language than the subject required.

ART. XVII. *Sermons, by the late Rev. John Drysdale, D.D. F.R.S. Edinburgh, one of the Ministers of Edinburgh, one of his Majesty's Chaplains, and principal Clerk to the Church of Scotland. To which is prefixed an Account of the Author's Life and Character: By Andrew Dalziel, M.A. F.R.S. Edinburgh, Professor of Greek, and Secretary and Librarian, in the University of Edinburgh; and principal Clerk to the Church of Scotland. In two Volumes. 8vo. Price 12s. in boards. Strahan and Cadell. 1793.*

THE author of these sermons, from the account of his life and character prefixed to the first volume, appears to have possessed great personal merit, to have attained considerable eminence in his profession, and to have been endowed with talents, which, had they not been restrained by uncommon diffidence and modesty,



desty, might have raised him to distinction in the literary world. Of the discourses here published, the learned and ingenious editor (who is also Dr. Drysdale's biographer, and had been many years his hearer) speaks in terms of high approbation. To his testimony is added that of the rev. Mr. Moodie, a minister of St. Andrew's church, Edinburgh, who, in a letter to Mr. Dalzel, gives the following character of the sermons.

Vol. 1. preface, p. lix. 'I have read with great care the manuscripts which you sent me. The high respect I entertain for Dr. Drysdale's memory, and the recollection of his friendly attention, to which I was so much indebted in my early years, may render me, perhaps, a partial judge of the merit of his sermons; but I am persuaded I deliver an opinion in which every candid reader will heartily concur with me, when I say that they will form a most valuable accession to those excellent models of pulpit eloquence which our language affords.

'I consider utility as the chief recommendation of a sermon; and this quality Dr. Drysdale's sermons possess in a most eminent degree. They discover throughout a most accurate knowledge of human nature, and breathe a high spirit of piety and virtue, which can hardly fail to transfuse itself into the mind of the reader. The style is every where forcible and impressive, and, at the same time, pure, perspicuous, and elegantly simple, free from all false ornaments and studied refinements, and from every thing that might betoken a light and frivolous mind.

'What I particularly admire is, that unity of design which appears in every sermon. The author, seizing on that view of the subject which promises to lead to the most useful discussion, carries the reader along with him, in a regular and uninterrupted stream of argument, from the beginning to the end of the discourse. He never loses sight of the great end of preaching. While he exhibits the most rational views of the doctrines of religion, he is always careful to illustrate and enforce their practical influence. He discovers uncommon reach and acuteness of judgment, in ascertaining the nature, and the limits of our several duties, in distinguishing genuine virtue from what has only the appearance of it, and in detecting vice under the various forms which it assumes. His reasoning is always persuasive and animated, fitted at once to inform the understanding, and to warm the heart. When he addresses himself to the passions, his style becomes frequently abrupt and vehement; and his mind, full of the importance of his subject, pours itself forth in soliloquy, apostrophe, and the other higher figures of speech, which are never introduced in order to excite surprise, but in which the reader will always find himself prepared to join.—In short, these sermons seem admirably calculated to inspire the mind with high sentiments of piety to God, trust in providence, independence on the world, admiration of virtue, steady and resolute attachment to duty, and contempt of every thing that is base or dishonourable.'

This is evidently and confessedly the language of panegyric, and will, of course, be read with some grains of allowance for the

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the partiality of friendship. Nevertheless the eulogium appears to us, upon the whole, well founded. We entirely agree with Mr. Moodie, with respect to the general spirit and tendency of the sermons, the perspicuity, simplicity, and animation of their style, and the unity of design, and clearness of arrangement, with which they are written. As popular sermons, we readily allow them considerable merit: but we cannot accede to that part of the encomium which represents them as discovering uncommon reach and acuteness of judgment in ascertaining the nature and limit of our several duties, &c. We find general topics treated in a practical and interesting manner, but meet with little moral disquisition on particular virtues and vices, and with few attempts to represent their diversified appearances in human life.

The subjects treated of in these discourses are—charity—education—early piety—keeping the heart—the wretched condition of wicked men—the nature of repentance—the danger of delaying repentance—the happy state of the true penitent—the miserable consequence of sensual pleasure—our unfitness to judge of our own condition in life—the distinction of ranks—trust in God—the sources of delight in public devotion—aspiring after perfection—the doctrines of christianity—self examination—the benefits of redemption—the true spirit of christian example—the peace bequeathed by our Saviour—the imperfection of righteousness without religion—our filial relation to God—the real nature of human life—humility—the uses of affliction—the immortality of the soul—a future judgment—the hope of heaven—the blessings of peace.

The style and spirit of these discourses may be in part seen from the following extract from the sermon on the distinction of ranks, in which the author shows the usefulness and necessity of different ranks and conditions among men. Vol. 1. p. 275.

‘ 1. Men cannot be happy, excepting in the proper exercise of their rational faculties, and the proper direction and exercise of their affections; and, in order to promote such exercise, they must be placed in a situation that gives opportunity for it. In a solitary state, no such opportunity can be found. There, mens talents are not called forth, and their affections find not their proper objects. Men are evidently made for society, and there only they find a field for the display of all their powers and affections.

‘ In order to the well-being of society, the first thing requisite is, that men possess the means of subsistence, which can be obtained only by human labour and exercise, employed in tilling the ground or traversing the woods and waters in quest of them. God has richly stored the world with food convenient for man; but has, at the same time, wisely and kindly ordained that he shall not have it without labour, and without the application of care and reflection, of skill and industry, of patience and constancy of mind. Thus God Almighty has so disposed of all things, that while men are seeking only the necessary means of preserving their lives, they unavoidably find enjoyment in the  
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exercise of their activity. They answer, in part, the end of life, while they labour only to preserve it; and this first necessary work of men, must at all times occupy a great proportion of their number; amongst whom, although by nature equal, differences will soon appear, according to the different degrees of judgment, skill, and diligence, which they discover. For the providing of food, clothing and habitation necessary for men, requires the use both of their head and hands; and to prevent confusion, it is evidently proper that different persons be chiefly employed in each of these departments. Hence the distinction of masters and servants; of some to direct, and others to be directed; of some to command, and others to obey; and of *high and low*, and *rich and poor* also, in consequence of the different degrees of their application and success.

2. ' Human society cannot subsist, unless each man's person, and his property, the fruit of his labour, be secure; unless violence, fraud, and injustice, be restrained, and general tranquillity and order be supported. For these purposes, there is a necessity for the institution of wise laws and regulations. The framing of these requires the attention and exertion of men of superior understanding, who are placed in circumstances that allow them to employ their time and thought on this important object, without distraction, arising from the care of their own subsistence. Hence the distinction of senators and lawgivers.

' Again: when laws are once made, they can avail nothing, unless uniformly and steadily put in execution; and for this purpose, particular persons must be set apart, and entrusted with power and authority, to enforce obedience to them. Hence the great distinction of magistrate and subject.

' Farther: as men are apt, from prejudice, from passion, and from mistaken interest, to do wrong; and as good order requires that the persons injured shall not decide in their own cause, and redress their own wrongs, there is an evident necessity for another distinction, to wit, that of judges, who having no interest to pervert their judgment, may decide betwixt the contending parties,—betwixt the highest and the lowest, with impartiality; according to the established laws of the society.

' When men behave worthily in these elevated stations, when all partake of the blessings of their integrity and public spirited care, they unavoidably become the objects of general respect and esteem. Are not all men disposed to admire wisdom, when employed for the purposes of justice and generosity? Are they not forward to express their veneration for these qualities, and to distinguish the possessors of them by every mark of respect? Hence distinctions take place amongst men of another kind than those already mentioned, to wit, outward titles of honour, to preserve the memory of the esteem in which they were held; and places of profit, to promote the comfort and conveniency of persons who have deserved so well of the state. These distinctions are the willing tribute of a grateful people to their benefactors, and are cheerfully transmitted from father to son, to be perpetual memorials of their regard for true merit. In consequence



of this transmission of outward honours to the posterity of those who first obtained them as the reward of merit, and the mark of real esteem, it no doubt too often happens that they come into possession of those who have no merit of their own. This consequence, however, cannot justly be complained of as wrong, when we consider the origin from whence it arose,—the just regard due to integrity, wisdom, and public spirit.

It must indeed be acknowledged, that men do not always act agreeably to the end and spirit of the station in which God has placed them. No doubt a member of the supreme council of a nation, though appointed to watch over the public interest, may employ all his time, reflection, skill, and industry, in promoting a private interest of his own, not only separate from, but contrary to that of the public. No doubt a judge may at a time be found, who, through criminal inattention, may mistake the side on which justice lies; or, though he discerns it, may, through corruption of heart, and base partiality, give judgement against it. But shall we, from these reasons, conclude that it would be better there were neither senators, magistrates, nor judges in the land? that all ranks were levelled, that all men might live as they listed, and consequently mere force carry every thing before it? Whatever comes under the management of men, is liable to abuse; the best institutions in the world suffer in their hands; but surely this is not a good reason for suppressing and dismissing them entirely. On account of the good purposes which they are calculated to serve, such abuses of them as cannot, after the most vigorous efforts, be corrected, ought, in reason, to be endured. Whatever degree of just indignation particular malversations in useful office may excite in our minds, it would surely be the height of folly to suppress the office itself. Whatever contempt or indignation we may feel against men who abuse their power, or their wealth, to their own, or their neighbour's hurt, it would surely be very unwise to determine that no man should be allowed to possess more than another, notwithstanding the most manifest superiority of skill and industry; or to determine to do what must render the rights and properties of men altogether insecure. This would be just such madness, as if men should agree to reject the religion of our Lord, because sometimes even this unspeakable gift of God hath been so abused and perverted, as to become, in many places, a dreadful scourge to the human race. It is not from any particular wrong application of any appointment, that we are to form an opinion of its propriety; but from its spirit, manifest tendency, and common-effect. Taking this rule for our guide then, we must be convinced that the distinction of *high and low, rich and poor*, among men, is not only very useful, but absolutely requisite for the well-being of human society.

The orthodox system is followed in these discourses; and the writer reckons among the peculiar doctrines of christianity that of the trinity, and of the atonement; but he gives no precise explanation of the sense in which he understands these doctrines, and places them rather in a practical than a speculative point of view.

view. On the whole, though not in any high degree entitled to the praise of originality, these sermons may be properly recommended as well adapted to impress virtuous, religious, and christian sentiments with energy and efficacy upon the mind of the serious reader.

ART. XVIII. *Discourses on Truth; the Importance of it, and the right Way to attain it. To which is added, a Discourse on preaching Christ Crucified.* By S. Palmer. Small 8vo. 182 pages, Price 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1793.

No one who observes the diversity of opinions which, after all that learned divines have done to settle the true faith, still remains, can doubt that the christian world has much need of a guide to point out *the right way to attain the truth*. Mr. P. has in these discourses undertaken this important office, but rather with a view to furnish the unlearned with practical directions for forming a fair judgment concerning points of controversy, than to provide the learned with axioms of logic, and canons of criticism, by which to regulate their reasoning concerning natural religion, and their researches into the meaning of scripture. There are, as Mr. P. observes, 'certain classes of christians, who though they profess great zeal for the truth, are only zealous for their own opinions, which they have taken up by accident, or upon the authority of other persons, without having impartially examined for themselves; having no just idea of the right of private judgment, or the importance of free inquiry, which are the first principles of protestant christianity.' It is for this class of christians, that these discourses are particularly designed. And they appear to us exceedingly well calculated to do good among them, both because the writer, being himself an advocate for some of the leading points of orthodoxy, such as the doctrine of the trinity and the atonement, will be much more likely to obtain a hearing from such persons, than men of more heterodox principles; and because the rules which he lays down are in general exceedingly useful, and are clearly explained and happily illustrated.

After representing the importance of truth, where, by the way, he appears to us to urge too far the criminality of speculative error, Mr. P. gives the following directions for attaining the truth; that it should be sought diligently and with an earnest desire to find it; that a due regard should be paid to the scriptures of truth, as the only rule; that reason should be allowed its proper use in all our inquiries; that we should not suffer the passions to mislead the judgment; that our inquiries should be conducted with freedom and impartiality; that we should guard against the prejudices arising from education, from personal respect, from antiquity, from novelty, from numbers, from the reputation of certain tenets, or their supposed importance, and from interest; and that we should pray for divine assistance. To these rules are added fundry characteristics of gospel truth, namely, that it is in itself plain, plainly revealed, consistent, honourable to the divine perfections, has peculiar respect to Jesus, is agreeable to common sense, lies in a medium between extremes, and has a good moral tendency and practical influence.

As a general air of candour runs through this publication, we were sorry to meet with any thing so illiberal as the charge of *gross absurdity*

*surdity*, which in the preface the author casts upon those who are distinguished by the appellation of *rational preachers*, because 'in some of their discourses there is so little appearance of christianity, that not only the mediation, but even the name of Christ is discarded, not a single passage of scripture introduced, and the text itself never mentioned or referred to, after the first reading.' In determining whether a man be a christian preacher, the question surely is, not whether he mention the name of Christ, or quote texts of scripture, but whether his discourses be consonant to the doctrine and spirit of christianity.

ART. XIX. *A Sermon preached in Lambeth Chapel, on Sunday December 2, 1792. At the Consecration of the Right Rev. William Buller, D. D. Lord Bishop of Exeter. Printed by the Command of the Archbishop of Canterbury. By John Sturges, LL. D. Chancellor of the Diocese of Winchester, and Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majesty. 4to. 14 pages, Price 1s. Cadell. 1792.*

Dr. Sturges is well known as an able and liberal advocate for religious establishments. The subject of this sermon is St. Paul's comparison of the distribution of gifts and offices in the church to the members of the human body, which have all their respective and necessary uses, and all conspire by their union to form a perfect man. This comparison is elegantly applied, first, generally to civil society; and next, particularly to the ecclesiastical establishment of this country. With respect to the latter, Dr. S. rests its vindication chiefly on the utility of such a distribution of ranks, and such a subordination, as may contribute to preserve regularity in the conduct of the clergy, and promote the influence of religion in society. All entrenchments of ecclesiastical power upon the liberty of the people, or the sovereignty of the state, he disclaims. At the same time he thinks it of moment, that the authority of the church should retain sufficient energy for duly administering its own internal discipline.

P. 8.—'However jealous [says he] the laity may be of ecclesiastical incroachments (though the repetition of them becomes every day less probable) it can never be their interest so to weaken the hands of the governors of the church, as to render them incapable of controuling the conduct of its ministers, or making them do their duty, and answer the purposes of their appointment, and of removing causes of complaint which very naturally come from the laity themselves. It can never be the interest of the people at large so to relax the laws, which bind any particular class of men, as to set that class at liberty from its own obligations, and to defeat the purposes for which it is formed. The sort of government to which an army is subject, is a striking exception to the general system of a free country; but it is by no means the public interest to do away this exception, by destroying military subordination. An army is no longer useful, and becomes highly dangerous, the moment it ceases to be implicitly obedient.'

As an instance of a want of sufficient power in the governors of the church to control its ministers, the non-residence of the clergy is particularly insisted upon: and several sensible remarks are made upon the exercise of that branch of episcopal authority, which was intended as a remedy against it.

ART.



**ART. XX.** *Two Discourses, proposing a rational Method of deciding in the present Disputes on Civil and Religious Subjects.* By Thomas Layton, M.A. late of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. 32 pages, Price 1s. Rivingtons. 1793.

THE author offers these discourses as an effort in the cause of moderation and rational piety. With what propriety, we shall endeavour to enable our readers to judge.

The first sermon, on submission to civil authority, preached on the publication of his majesty's proclamation to suppress seditious writings, sets out upon the principle, that the virtues recommended to our chief regard in the christian religion are of a passive nature, and that it affords no incitement to those more active dispositions, which the world honours with the name of virtues, under the titles of public spirit, patriotism and resistance of evil. From these premises, however, the only conclusion here drawn is, that men ought to submit to that government which promotes the advantage and security of the people; and, it is at the same time admitted that the obligation ceases, when governors so far forget the nature of their office, and the importance of the trust committed to their charge, as to involve their subjects in misery and wretchedness, instead of 'studying to preserve them in wealth, peace and godliness.'

P. 10.—'Under such circumstances, [says the preacher] I say, no law can require a submission to so perverted an authority, nor forbid any fair exertion to regain the people's injured privileges.—In the language of christianity, they are denominated the "ministers of God for our good;"—but if they are not the ministers of good, no principle of reason or religion can require us to reverence and obey them as the ministers of God.—He who derives the motives of his civil obedience from the oracles of heavenly wisdom, will neither be the envious detractor of wholesome authority, nor the venal parasite of unjust dominion:—he will pay a ready obedience to the powers of the world, while they do not interfere nor are inconsistent with the allegiance he owes to the powers of heaven:—he will observe those gradations of duty (if I may so speak) which reason and religion have determined, and whenever they clash, he will resolutely attach himself to the observance of that duty which is enjoined by the highest authority.—While he endeavours to practise that system of virtue, which from the circumstances of the world must be generally of a passive nature, he will be aware that there are certain points, in which it must degenerate into pusillanimity and baseness,—that there are situations in which obedience leads to the perpetration of the worst of crimes, and submission makes us partners in guilt and infamy.—His attachment to the state will be that of an honest and reasonable man, not of a slave and sycophant. He will avoid, as well the servile and wicked extreme of passive obedience to every measure which ambition or tyranny may enjoin, as the arrogant one of calling in question every act of just and lawful policy.—He will be too wise to expect perfection in any human system,—too good to acquiesce in any gross deviation from rectitude, and too cautious and prudent to resign the possession of peace, prosperity and freedom, for imaginary advantages which might never be realized.'

It will not, we apprehend, be easy to reconcile with these liberal sentiments, the passive doctrine which we meet with, both at the beginning, and at the conclusion of this sermon. But the second discourse, preached on trinity sunday, affords a still more striking instance of inconsistency. The preacher, in the opening, insists upon the danger of indolence in religious enquiry, and the importance of a diligent study of the scriptures. The blind and implicit adoption of principles, which men have never considered or digested, in submission to human authority, he condemns as absurd, dangerous and criminal. Yet, while he thus urges the expedience of searching the scriptures, as the only safe and infallible rule of our principles and practices; he advises men of inferior abilities, or confined opportunities for inquiry, to follow implicitly the determination of the *majority*. 'In our secular concerns [says he] the opinion of the majority is esteemed the truth, and I cannot see, why the same rule should not obtain with respect to our spiritual concerns.' Upon this plan of deciding doubtful points of theology, by counting the number of votes on each side, which, by the way, may often be no very easy task, our author recommends to his hearers a ready acquiescence in the ancient and commonly received doctrine of the trinity, esteeming it their honour to be classed with such characters as Pearson, Bull, Sherlock, Secker, Watts and Doddridge.

**ART. XXI.** *A Sermon applicable to the present Times, and designed as an Antidote to those dangerous Doctrines now in Circulation tending to the Destruction of all Order and Government. Preached in the Parish of North-Bradley, in the County of Wilts, and published at the Request of the Parishioners. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B. Vicar of the said Parish. 8vo. 27 pages. Price 6d. Rivingtons, 1793.*

WE have seldom seen more undertaken, and less effected, than in this sermon. The preacher undertakes to settle the foundation of government, and only asserts, in general terms, that government is from God, without explaining in what sense it is so, or offering any reasoning to prove that it has any better claim to a divine origin, than any other useful institutions, which men think themselves at liberty to alter at their pleasure. In order to provide an antidote against the dangerous doctrines of the times, he undertakes to define the terms liberty, equality, independence, and the rights of man; but gives no explanation of them, which either agrees with the ideas of their advocates, or tends, in the smallest degree, to cast new light upon the subject. Concerning *liberty*, all that we learn is, that it is that which best secures men from the evils of licentiousness, and which the laws of society allow, as alone compatible with the general liberty of its members. But what that liberty is, which the law ought to allow as best conducing to the end of preserving order, we are left uninformed. Instead of defining *equality*, the author maintains that no such thing can possibly exist; without paying the least attention to the distinction, so often made, that though men cannot be equal in talents and possessions, they have all an equal right to the secure possession of what they have, and consequently to the choice of those, who are to make and execute the laws by which they are to be governed. *Independence* too, instead

instead of being defined, is asserted to be unattainable. And with respect to the *rights of man*, we are referred to the bible for a refutation of the fallacy on which this doctrine is built, and reminded that, after the flood, 'God set a ruler over every people.'

ART. XXII. *A Sermon, preached before the Mayor and Corporation, at St. George's Church, Liverpool, on Sunday the 30th of December, 1792.* By the Rev. Samuel Renshaw, M. A. formerly of Brazen-Nose College, Oxford. Published at the Request of the Mayor. 4to. 15 pages. Price 1s. Kearsley. 1793.

THE propensity of the jews to return to idolatry being stated in an introduction of disproportionate length, it is in the sequel of this discourse applied to the present times, but with what propriety we do not clearly perceive, to teach us the value of the advantages which we possess, both as members of a happy and well constituted state, and as professors of a pure and perfect religion, and to convince us, how deeply we are interested in protecting the former against the dangerous attempts of rash and unskillful alteration, and the latter against the unwearied and insidious attacks of modern scepticism. Mr. R. is an enemy to innovation, not only because our constitution, on which he bestows a just and animated encomium, invests us with the first and dearest of all political blessings, liberty, but because the mildness and moderation of the present government are such that no innovations are attempted, no new restraints exercised, which can afford the least colourable pretext to confirm or justify alarm.—Having described, in elegant language, the enviable happiness of our present situation, the preacher proceeds, not very charitably, to express a strong suspicion, that the zeal, with which plans of reformation are at present pursued, originates 'in a disposition, which, impatient of the general felicity, would blast the virtue it was unable to emulate, would appropriate to itself the affluence which it has neither industry nor ingenuity to acquire, and bury those resplendent honours in oblivion, the lustre of which serves but to place in a more contemptible light its own worthlessness and demerit:—that is, reducing this flowing period to its plain and simple meaning, the reformers are a set of idle, envious, and worthless wretches, who will neither be happy themselves, nor suffer others to be so.—Such are the returns, with which the public-spirited are repaid for their honest and patriotic services.

ART. XXIII. *A Sermon preached in Greenwich Church, on Sunday, November 4, 1792.* By the Rev. A. Burnaby, D. D. Archdeacon of Leicester, and Vicar of Greenwich. Small 4to. 13 pages. Price 1s. Payne. 1793.

THE calamities of the French nation are, by this preacher, imputed to its infidelity and impiety. For these crimes God is now said to be 'shewing himself to them in all his terrors, to be visiting them in anger, in judgment, and in justice.' Hence the inhabitants of this country are warned of the danger of forsaking the religion of their forefathers, and exhorted to support it both by instruction and example. It may be difficult for us, in any case, peremptorily to pronounce the calamity which befalls a nation to be a judgment from heaven; practical exhortations, however, to reformation and piety,



such as we find in this discourse, can never be unseasonable, and certainly were never more seasonable than at present.

ART. XXIV. *An Antidote to Rebellion: proving Kingly Government superior to Republicanism; and tending to promote Sentiments of Loyalty, and true patriotic Courage, on Christian Principles.* In a Sermon, by a Loyal Minister of the Church of England. 8vo. 28 pages. Price 6d. Tetbury, Wilton. London, Goldsmith. 1793.

Is loyalty become so rare a thing, that even among the clergy of the church of England the epithet *loyal* is an honourable badge of distinction? In taking to himself this appellation, the author of this sermon certainly casts a most slanderous reproach upon his brethren. His zeal, however, will be a sufficient atonement for the indiscretion; for, against what he meekly calls damnable doctrines, he fulminates the artillery of 'the divine right of kings to sway the sceptre of supremacy;' not, indeed, on his own authority, for he 'confesses his knowledge of political tenures not sufficient to give a positive opinion respecting this *Jure Divino* matter,' but on the testimony of the scriptures, which teach, that 'the kingdom is the Lord's, and he is the governor among the nations.'

ART. XXV. *A Discourse on the Advantages which accrue to this Country from the intimate Connexion which subsists between the several Ranks and Orders in Society.* By Eirenophilos. 8vo. 37 pages. Pr. 1s. Richardson. 1793.

THE text of this discourse, which was delivered on the 10th of June, 1792, but where we are not informed, is taken from St. Mark, chap. ix. ver. 50. 'Have peace with one another.'

In it we are told, that an examination of the history of mankind will induce us to believe, that the calamities which have befallen them are to be ascribed in a greater degree to their 'internal dissensions,' than to all the other causes united, to which they can with any reason be imputed. After lamenting the rivers of blood that have been shed in all ages 'on no better foundation than the gratification of ambition, hatred, jealousy, or some other malignant or disgraceful passion,' the preacher advises his audience, 'instead of drawing visionary sketches of improvement, the attempt of which may be attended with the danger of overthrowing the constitution,' to point out to their friends and neighbours 'the value of the happiness with which they are blessed at present, the danger of its loss, and the little probability there is, that they would be equally happy under any new and precipitate arrangement of the powers of the state.'

ART. XXVI. *Food for National Penitence; or a Discourse intended for the approaching Fast Day.* 8vo. 16 Pages. Price 4d. Johnson. 1793.

THE author of this sensible, well written, and seasonable discourse, proceeds upon an idea which, however obvious, has not always been attended to by preachers, on days of public fasting and humiliation; namely, that the subjects of penitence, on such an occasion, are not so properly the vices of men considered individually, as the *sins of the nation*. The former being, in every ordinary

ordinary service of religion “acknowledged and confessed;” there is, unquestionably, a peculiar propriety in occasionally exercising the public authority to enjoin an act of national penitence, for those crimes which the community commits, and for which without repentance and reformation it must expect to be chastised in its corporate capacity. Several instances of public delinquency this intelligent writer apprehends he discovers in the present national character; and he modestly points them out as proper food for penitence on the fast, the observance of which has been enjoined by royal proclamation.

In the opening, the author rejects, with becoming indignation, the notion of averting national calamities by so insignificant a thing as abstaining from one meal, or adding one service to the religious exercises of the year. Having stated the proper object of such appointments, and taken a general view of the moral evils consequent upon too full a tide of national prosperity, he points out several enormities, which, if suffered to continue, ‘will render a day of fasting and prayer in the eyes of God and of reasonable men, a mere mockery of religion.’ The first of these is, for a people *politically free*, who have so dearly purchased the inestimable treasure of civil liberty, to aid in forging for others fetters, which they themselves have broken. The second is, for a people *personally free*, from whose country private and domestic slavery is totally banished, to become the instruments by which the poor African is wronged of it. This foul crime, exposed, avowed, undefended, yet still permitted, will, says the preacher, sit heavy upon the soul of Britain, in the day of her adversity. A third national sin is, for a *commercial people*, possessed of the golden chain by which inhabitants of the most remote regions are connected, to become imperious masters to distant countries, drain them of their treasures, and, whenever it suits the interests of a dark policy, involve them in all the horrors of war and famine. In an *enlightened people*, adds the author, it is an heinous national offence to love darkness better than light.

Whether the national sins pointed out by the author were precisely intended by our governors to be the objects of public humiliation, or not, they are certainly just grounds of penitence, and probably were not wholly forgotten in the celebration of the late fast.

ART. XXVII. *A Form of Prayer, to be used in all Churches and Chapels throughout that Part of Great Britain called England, Dominion of Wales, and Town of Berwick upon Tweed, upon Friday the 19th of April next, being the Day appointed by Proclamation, for a general Fast and Humiliation before Almighty God; to be observed in most devout and solemn Manner, by sending up our Prayers and Supplications to the Divine Majesty; for obtaining Pardon of our Sins, and for averting those heavy Judgments which our manifold Provocations have most justly deserved; and imploring his Blessing and Assistance on the Arms of his Majesty by Sea and Land, and for restoring and perpetuating Peace, Safety*

*Safety, and Prosperity to himself, and to his Kingdoms.* By his Majesty's special Command. Small 4to. 22 Pages. Price 6d. Strahan. 1793.

So little novelty is expected in public services of this kind, that we shall be excused if we pass over this form of prayer without any farther notice, than just to remark the terms under which it characterizes the French nation. The assistance of heaven is entreated against 'an enemy to all christian kingdoms, princes and states, who not having the fear of God before his eyes, trusteth in violence, and delighteth in blood.' In another prayer, they are spoken of as '*unprovoked* enemies, who having cast off the fear of God, are labouring to overthrow the religion, laws and government of the world.' And again, humble intercession is offered for the repentance and conversion of 'men, who following the vain imaginations of reprobate minds have plunged themselves into those horrid cruelties which astonished the christian world.'—Whatever may be thought of the present character of the French nation, would there be either impiety or presumption, in asking, whether the descriptive style be proper for devotion, and whether the language of crimination against their brethren be that which best becomes sinful mortals in addressing their Maker?

ART. XXVIII. *Reflections, moral, and political, on the Murder of Louis the Sixteenth: in a Sermon, preached on that Occasion, on Sunday, February 3, 1793; and published by particular Desire.* 8vo. 58 pages. Price 1s. R. Edwards. 1793.

THIS preacher undertakes '*very calmly* to enquire, what a nation ought to be, upon all the most useful and amiable principles of nature, of reason, and of religion; what has been the character and conduct of a neighbouring nation, and what cause it has to apprehend the avenging visitations of heaven; and, what are the lessons of national instruction it is our duty to collect from their present situation.'—But he is too full of contempt for the French revolution, of abhorrence of the event which is the immediate occasion of this discourse, and of indignation against the authors of it, to be able to prosecute these or any other topics with *calmness*. The whole is a confused and immethodical harangue, much more calculated to inflame than to instruct.

ART. XXIX. *The Rights of God.* By Thomas Scott, Chaplain of the Lock Hospital. 8vo. 90 pages. Price 1s. 6d. or in 12mo. 1s. Jordan. 1793.

THERE is a quaint allusion in the title of this work, which, however it may suit a particular class of readers, will not contribute much to recommend the book to the attention of the public at large. If so novel a title should lead the reader to expect any thing new in the work, he will be disappointed. The author treats, with some fluency of language, several common-place topics, under two leading heads, the rights of God as the creator, providential benefactor, and moral governor of the world; and his rights in respect to his dealings with sinful creatures.

M. D.

Y O L.



P O L I T I C S.

ART. XXX. *The authentic State Papers which passed between Monsieur Chauvelin, Minister Plenipotentiary from France, and the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, from 12th May, 1792, to 24th January, 1793, and presented to the House of Commons, January 28th, 1793. 8vo. 92 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1793.*

THE first seven of these state papers contain the correspondence of Mr. Chauvelin, as minister plenipotentiary from the French king, with Lord Grenville. In No. 13, dated Dec. 27, 1792, Mr. C. designates himself 'as minister plenipotentiary from France,' and in that quality demands a categorical answer to the question, 'whether England is to be considered as a neutral power or an enemy?' After this, he proceeds as follows :

'France ought and will respect, not only the independence of England, but even that of those of her allies, with whom she is not at war. The undersigned has therefore been charged formally to declare that she will not attack Holland, so long as that power shall, on its side, confine itself towards her, within the bounds of an exact neutrality.'

'The British government being thus set at its ease upon these two points, no pretence for the smallest difficulty could remain, except as to the opening of the Scheldt, a question irrevocably decided by reason and by justice, of small importance in itself, and on which the opinion of England, and perhaps of Holland itself, is sufficiently known, to render it difficult seriously to make it the single subject of a war. Should, however, the British ministry avail itself of this last motive, as a cause of declaring war against France, would it not, in such case, be probable, that its secret intentions must have been, at all events, to bring on a rupture; and that it made use, at the present moment, of the vainest of all pretences, to colour an unjust aggression, long ago determined upon ?

'On this unfortunate supposition, which the executive council rejects, the undersigned would be authorized forcibly to support the dignity of the French nation, and to declare with firmness, that this free, and powerful people, will accept the war, and repel with indignation, an aggression so manifestly unjust, and so little provoked on its part.

'The undersigned has orders to demand a written answer to the present note. He hopes that the ministers of his Britannick majesty will be brought back by the explanations which it contains, to ideas more favourable to the reunion of the two countries, and that they will not have occasion, for the purpose of returning to them, to consider the terrible responsibility of war, which will incontestibly be their own work, the consequences of which cannot be otherwise than fatal to the two countries, and to human nature in general, and in which a generous and free people cannot long consent to betray their own interests, by serving as an auxiliary and a reinforcement to a tyrannical coalition.'

No. 15, dated Jan. 7, 1793, second year of the French republic, is the translation of an official note from the same, to the same, protesting

testing against the Alien Bill, then in its progress through the two houses of parliament, as being expressly contrary to the 4th article of the treaty of navigation and commerce, concluded between the two states in 1786. This was returned by lord G. as inadmissible.

No. 17, dated Portman-square, 7th Jan. 1793, second year of the French republic, is the translation of another letter from the same, to the same, protesting against the stoppage of foreign corn, destined for the ports of France, which is considered as an 'act of perfidy,' and a measure calculated to sink the credit of the English commerce, 'by violating the sacred asylum of its markets.'

No. 24. is the translation of a paper addressed by Mr. le Brun to Mr. Chauvelin, and communicated by the latter to lord Grenville, Jan. 13, 1793; we shall select one short passage from it:

'Now to come to the three points which can alone make an object of difficulty at the court of London, the executive council observe respecting the first, which is the decree of the 19th of November, that we have not been properly understood by the ministry of his Britannick majesty, when they accuse us of having given an explanation *which announces to the seditious of all nations, what are the cases in which they may previously count on the support and assistance of France.*

'Nothing could be more foreign than this reproach to the sentiments of the national convention, and to the explanation which we have given of them; and we did not think that it were possible we should be charged with the open design of favouring the *seditious*, at the very moment when we declare, that it would be *wronging the national convention if they were charged with the project of protecting insurrections, and with the commotions that may break out in any corner of a state, of joining the ringleaders, and of thus making the cause of a few private individuals that of the French nation.*

'We have said, and we desire to repeat it, that the decree of the 19th of November could not have any application, unless to the *single case*, in which the *general will* of a nation, clearly and unequivocally expressed, should call the French nation to its assistance and fraternity. Sedition can certainly never be construed into the *general will*. These two ideas naturally repel each other, since a sedition is not and cannot be any other than the movement of a small number against the nation at large; and this movement would cease to be seditious, provided all the members of a society should at once rise, either to correct their government, or to change its form *in tota*, or for any other object. The Dutch were assuredly not seditious when they formed the generous resolution of shaking off the yoke of Spain; and when the general will of that nation called for the assistance of France, it was not reputed a crime in Henry the fourth, or in Elizabeth of England, to have listened to them.

'It appears that the ministers of his Britannick majesty have nothing to object to the declaration relative to Holland, since the single observation made by them on that subject belongs to the discussion of the Scheldt. It is this last point, therefore, to which we are confined.

'We repeat it, this question is in itself of little moment. The ministers of Great Britain conclude that *it only serves to prove more clearly, that it was brought forward merely for the purpose of insulting the allies of England, &c.* We shall reply with much less warmth and prejudice, that this question is absolutely indifferent to England; that it is of

little

little importance to Holland; but that it is extremely important to the Belgians. That it is indifferent to England it is not necessary to prove; and its trivial import to Holland is evinced by this fact, that the productions of the Belgians pass equally by the canals which terminate at Ostend. Its great importance to the Belgians is proved by the numerous advantages the port of Antwerp presents to them. It is therefore on account of this importance, it is to restore to the Belgians the enjoyment of so precious a right, and not to offend any one, that France has declared herself ready to support them in the exercise of so legitimate a right.'

The correspondence between lord Grenville and the minister from France was put an end to by a letter from the former, dated Whitehall, Jan. 24, 1793, commanding the latter in his majesty's name 'to retire from this kingdom within the term of eight days,' and the copy of his majesty's order in council for that purpose, was soon after published in the Gazette.

These state papers seem to have been translated with great haste, and consequently abound with many inaccuracies.

ART. XXXI. *Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt, on the King's Message, which was delivered in the House of Commons on Friday February 1, 1793.* 8vo. 44 pages. Price 1s. Owen. 1793.

MR. SPEAKER read a message from the king to the house, signifying that his majesty had given orders for laying before them copies of certain papers which had been received from Mr. Chauvelin, late minister plenipotentiary from the most christian king; and likewise copies of an order in council, transmitted by his majesty's command to the said Mr. Chauvelin, 'in consequence of the accounts of the atrocious acts recently perpetrated at Paris;' and that in the present situation of affairs, his majesty thought it indispensably necessary 'to make a farther augmentation of his forces by sea and land, for maintaining the security and rights of his own dominions, for supporting his allies, and for opposing views of aggrandisement and ambition on the part of France, which would be at all times dangerous to the general interests of Europe, but more particularly so when connected with the propagation of principles which lead to the violation of the most sacred duties, and are utterly subversive of the peace and order of all civil society.'

The chancellor of the exchequer then arose, and, having taken a survey of the present posture of affairs, expatiated largely on the horrors that reigned throughout a neighbouring kingdom, and the crimes that had been lately committed in it. He thought that the attention of the house should, in the first instance, be directed 'to that calamitous event, to that dreadful outrage against every principle of religion, of justice, and of humanity, which has created one general sentiment of indignation and abhorrence in every part of this island, and most undoubtedly has produced the same effect in every civilized country.'

After this, he made a variety of observations on the correspondence of Mr. Chauvelin, and reprobated the decree passed by the National Convention on the 19th of November, which he termed



termed 'a direct attack on every government in Europe, by encouraging the seditious of all nations to rise up against their lawful rulers, and by promising them their support and assistance.'

Mr. P. then recurred to the order of the executive council of France relative to the Scheldt, the exclusive navigation of which had been one of the established rights of Holland from the treaty of Munster down to the year 1785.

'To insist [says he] upon the opening of the river Scheldt, is an act of itself, in which the French nation had no right to interfere at all, unless she was the sovereign of the Low Countries, or boldly professed herself the general arbitress of Europe. This singular circumstance was an aggravation of their case, because they were bound by the faith of solemn and recent treaties, to secure to the Dutch the exclusive navigation of the Scheldt, and to have opposed the opening of that river if any other power had attempted it. If France were the sovereign of the Low Countries, she would only succeed to the rights which were enjoyed by the house of Austria. And if she possessed the sovereignty, with all its advantages, she must also take it with all its incumbrances, of which the shutting up the Scheldt was one. France can have no right to annul the stipulations relative to the Scheldt, unless she has also the right to set aside, equally, all the other treaties between all the other powers of Europe, and all the other rights of England, or of her allies. England will never consent that France shall arrogate the power of annulling at her pleasure, and under the pretence of a natural right, of which she makes herself the only judge, the political system of Europe, established by solemn treaties, and guaranteed by the consent of all the powers. Such a violation of rights as France has been guilty of, would be difficult to find in the history of the world. The conduct of that nation, is in the highest degree arbitrary, capricious, and founded upon no one principle of reason or justice. They declare this treaty was antiquated, and extorted by despotism, or procured by corruption. But what happened recently in the last year? This new and enlightened nation renewed her assurance of respecting all the rights of all his majesty's allies, without any exception, without any reservation, so that the advancement of this claim is directly contrary to their recent professions.

After affirming that 'war, whenever it comes,' will be preferable to 'peace without honour, and without security,' Mr. P. concluded by moving an address to the king, in which the commons offer his majesty their heartfelt condolence on the late occurrence at Paris, and re-echo the various clauses of the message, consenting to the proposed augmentation of his forces 'for supporting the just rights of his allies, and for preserving to his people the undisturbed enjoyment of the blessings which, under divine Providence, they receive from the British constitution.'

ART. XXXII. *A Collection of Addresses transmitted by certain English Clubs and Societies to the National Convention of France; the Decree of the Executive Council respecting the Scheldt; and Extracts*

*tracts from several Treaties respecting the Navigation of that River; and also certain Decrees of the National Convention, Le Brun's Report, the Speeches of M. M. Cambon, Dupont, and Kerfaint. With several other interesting Papers, tending chiefly to shew the general Views of France with respect to this, and other Countries. To which are added, Extracts from the seditious Resolutions of the English Societies; and a List of those Societies.* 4to. 49 pages. Price 2s. Debrett. 1793.

MOST of these addresses and public papers have already been published in the newspapers: we shall, however, make two or three extracts from such as have been more immediately referred to in the two preceding articles.

'*Decree of fraternity, sitting of the 19th of November, 1792.*—The National Convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all people who wish to recover their liberty; and they charge the executive power to send the necessary orders to the generals to give assistance to such people, and to defend those citizens who have suffered, or may suffer, in the cause of liberty.

'M. Serjeant—I move that this decree be translated and printed in all languages. This proposition is adopted.'

'*Decree of the executive council of France, for the free Navigation of the Scheldt and Meuse, November 16, 1792.*

'*Extract of the registers of the deliberations of the provisional executive council of the 16th of November, 1792.*—The executive council deliberating on the conduct of the French armies in the countries which they occupy, especially in *Belgia*, one of its members observed—

'1. That the chains and trammels which till now navigation and commerce have suffered, as well upon the *Scheldt* as upon the *Meuse*, are directly contrary to the fundamental principles of natural law, which the French have sworn to maintain.—2. That the course of rivers is the common and unalienable property of all the countries watered by them; that a nation cannot, without injustice, pretend to the right of occupying the channel of a river, and to prevent the neighbouring nations, who inhabit the upper banks, from enjoying the same advantage; that such right is a remnant of feudal servitude, or at least an odious monopoly, which could only be established by force, and consented to by weakness; that consequently it is revocable every moment, and in spite of all conventions, because nature knows as little of privileged people, as of privileged individuals, and the rights of man are always imprescriptible.—3. That the glory of the French republic requires, that wherever the protection of her arms extends, liberty should be established, and tyranny overthrown.—4. That when to the advantages procured to the Belgian people by the French arms, shall be joined the free navigation of rivers, and the freedom of the commerce of these provinces, not only the people will have no farther ground to doubt of their own independence, or of the disinterestedness which directs the republic, but even the nations of Europe cannot then refuse to acknowledge, that the destruction of all tyrannies,

rannies, and the triumph of the rights of man, are the sole ambition of the French people.

‘The council, struck with these powerful considerations, decrees, that the general in chief commanding the French armies in the expedition of Belgia, shall be enjoined to take the most precise measures, and to employ every method which is in his power, to ensure the liberty of navigation and transports in the whole course of the Scheldt and the Meuse. The reading of this resolution was interrupted by numerous plaudits.’

‘*Extract from the Treaty of Münster between Spain and Holland, signed 30th January, 1648.*—Article XIV.—The river of the *Escaut*, (Scheldt) as also the canals of Sas, Zwyn, and other mouths of rivers disemboguing themselves there, shall be kept shut on the side of the lands of the states.’

‘The above treaty was confirmed by the treaty of Westminster, between England and Holland, Feb. 9—19, 1674.—Art. VII,

‘Ditto between ditto, March 3, 1677—8. Art. II. (generally).

• Windsor, between ditto, - - - August, 17, 1685,

• Whitehall, ditto, - - - August, 16, 1689.

• Utrecht, ditto, - - - January 29, 1713.

• Hague, ditto, - - - January 4, 1717.

• Aix-la-Chapelle, between England, France, and Holland, - - - October 18, 1748.—Art. III.

• Paris, between Great Britain, France, and Spain, Feb. 10, 1763.

• And Versailles, between Great Britain and France, Sept. 3, 1783.’

We think this a very useful collection of public papers; but we are far from approving of the spirit with which it is published, as it abounds with a number of cruel, and, in all human probability, unjust insinuations against the popular societies in this country.

**ART. XXXIII.** *Report of the Committees of General Defence on the Dispositions of the British Government towards France, and on the Measures to be taken. Addressed to the National Convention of France, in the Sitting of January 12, 1793, the second Year of the Republic. Also the second Report, on a Declaration of War with England. By J. P. Brissot, Deputy from the Department of Eure and Loire. Translated from the Copy published by Order of the National Assembly. To which is added, the Protests entered upon the Journals of the Lords House of Parliament against a War with France, by the Marquis of Lansdown, Earl of Lauderdale, and Earl of Derby. 8vo. 35 pages. Price 1s. Ridgway. 1793.*

Mr. Brissot brought in a report from the united diplomatic and marine committees, in which they declared to the convention: ‘1st. That the complaints of the British cabinet against France, are without foundation; 2dly, That, on the contrary, the French republic have well-founded complaints against the court of St. James’s; 3dly, That after having exhausted every means to preserve peace with the English nation, the interest and dignity of the French republic required that they should decree the most rigorous measures to repel the aggressions of the cabinet of St. James’s.’

• It



• It was necessary, [he added] that the English nation should be instantly undeceived, in respect to the recent conduct of its government, and that every Frenchman should have full conviction, that in combating it, he supports the cause of justice.

• The sentiments excited in England by our revolution have been different in the people, the parliament, and the court. The people displayed joy, the parliament anxiety, the court fear. The well manifested opinion of the people forced the minister to be silent, and his interest engaged him to observe the most strict neutrality in the war which had taken place between France, Austria, and Prussia. In this he found a double advantage; the nation enriched itself in the midst of these disputes, of which she was merely the spectatress; and the minister fixed himself more firmly in his place: to preserve this double interest, it was, that the cabinet of St. James's so frequently declared its intention to observe a strict neutrality towards France; and, in truth, she did so, till the ever memorable tenth of August.

• The suspension of the king of the French suddenly changed the apparent disposition of the English court; and on the 17th of August she recalled her ambassador, under the futile pretext that his letters of credence were addressed to the king only, as though it had been difficult to have sent him new ones. The minister, Dundas, added that his recal was more conformable to the principles of neutrality of the English court; as though there were any resemblance between neutrality in a war, the event of the 10th of August, and the recal of Lord Gower. Henry Dundas still protested the firm resolution of the English court, not to meddle with the internal affairs of France, and yet he recalled the ambassador under the pretext of the revolution of the 10th of August. Was not this meddling with the interior government of France? since it declared disapprobation of its measures. If the cabinet of England had any respect for the independence of nations, it ought at least to have sent back its ambassador at the opening of the convention; for, from the moment all the departments sent deputies to this convention, it was evident, that by this conduct it gave the most formal approbation to the measures of the legislative assembly, and consequently to the suspension of the king. Did the cabinet of St. James's found its refusal on the abolition of royalty, pronounced by the convention at the opening of its sittings? But the convention having unlimited power, were able to abolish royalty, and substitute a republican government. The cabinet of St. James's could not refuse to correspond with the new executive council without violating the principle, declared by itself, of the independence of nations, without declaring that it intended to intermeddle in the interior government of France.

After making many severe and pointed attacks on the 'diplomatic chicanery' evinced by our ministers in all their late negotiations, and their art in calling forth the clamours of all those 'who subsist on old abuses,' Mr. B. enumerates the various provocations offered by them to France: 1st, the refusal to send an ambassador to, or recognize the republic; 2dly, the injurious partiality in respect to the exportation of foreign corn; 3dly, the bill against the circulation of French paper money; 4thly, the marked partiality evinced towards the emigrant priests, and nobles; and 5thly, the alien bill, in express contravention to the treaty of commerce between the two nations. While alluding to the resources of the two countries for carrying on a war, the re-

porter insists, that the public expenditure of England in 1791, after a peace of seven years, amounted to more than seventeen, while its receipts did not exceed sixteen millions: 'thus, [adds he] a greater sum is necessary in England to govern seven millions of people, than in France, supposing us at peace, would be necessary for the wants of twenty-five millions; that is saying, that every Englishman pays three times as much as a Frenchman; it is saying, that England has not one security to offer for the loans she will be obliged to raise in case of a war, since her ordinary expence in time of peace exceeds the ordinary income by near a million: while France has a value of above one hundred and thirty millions sterling in land to offer as a mortgage, and should this be spent, the riches of the soil, and the industry of the inhabitants, offer these immense resources which have long since been consumed by the English ministry.'

We shall not enter into any discussion concerning either the justice or injustice of these calculations, but consign them entirely to the test of futurity.

ART XXXIV. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, &c. in which the present State of the British Nation is considered, both positively, and in Comparison with the present State of the French Nation.* 8vo. 104 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1793.

It will doubtless be objected by every man capable of reflection, that there can be no justice in the comparison between a nation enjoying a profound peace, as Great Britain did, at the period when this publication was written, and an infant republic such as France, while struggling against domestic faction, and foreign enemies, and experiencing all the miseries and all the horrors attendant upon a contest against most, if not all the crowned heads in Europe.

We shall present the reader with a picture of our prosperity as delineated by the author of the pamphlet now before us. 'The faculties and the resources of the British nation, at this time, are numerous and valuable; and both in number and in value, they seem to increase constantly.—The great fertility of our soil, may be inferred from the abundance of cattle and of grain with which our markets are supplied; and, perhaps, from the difficulties which the executive power experiences in preventing the exportation of large quantities of the latter commodity.—The high price of land is very sensibly felt by every purchaser.—The improvements recently made by our artists are acknowledged both here, and in foreign countries.—The success of our manufactures appears from the enlargement, and the opulence of our principal manufacturing towns.—The extension of navigation and the advancement of commerce, are evident from the additions made, almost daily, to the custom-house entries of ships, and of mercandize.—The prosperous condition of the public finances, is obvious from the extraordinary amount of the surplus of the revenue, which his majesty stated, in the last speech delivered from the throne, to be such as to afford sufficient ground for hoping, that the expences of the armament then going on, might be defrayed out of it, without any necessity being felt for imposing fresh taxes.—As to public credit, which, except upon the eve of a war, or at a juncture assumed at the



eve of a war, always bears a direct proportion to the excess of the revenue over the expenditure, it is now much higher than any one unacquainted with it would conclude it to be; were he to draw his conclusion from a view of the various connections of Great Britain with other countries.—And with regard to our glorious constitution—the prime of all the objects that claim our attention—it appears that the measures lately pursued, first, by the king and his ministers; next, by the two houses of parliament; and then by the great body of the people themselves, have completely removed every species of danger with which it was threatened.—On looking at the church, we see the projects which the nonconformists hoped to be able to accomplish through the repeal of the corporation and test acts, rendered abortive for a period equal to the ordinary life of man. We see atheism, the twin sister of anarchy, almost every where discountenanced. We also see the bold apostle of socinianism, after being persecuted by fire and Birmingham poniards, for righteousness and republicanism's sake, forced to sit down in sadness, amid his assortment of crucibles, retorts, and receivers; yet, perhaps, not altogether wretched, having it in his power to recollect, that he had been admitted to the high honours of French citizenship, and of French fraternity.—When we turn our eyes to the state, we behold its foreign enemies set at defiance; its domestic enemies disarmed, exiled, or executed; and its domestic friends—the friends of the people—whose efforts are ten thousand times more to be dreaded, at this crisis, than those of all manner of foes, of all manner of descriptions, condemned to a mortifying silence, by the award of every other man in the kingdom;—save only when they seek to preserve themselves from eternal infamy, by endeavouring to justify their very unjustifiable conduct.

We behold in whatever point of view we contemplate the constitution, some of her little clubs of opposers laid prostrate at her feet; and many from among her vast associations of supporters, standing erect, and firm by her side. We behold, in fine, legal liberty—the grand sweetener of human life,—the inestimable birthright of ourselves, and of our forefathers, well secured to us, and likely to be the precious inheritance of our children, and of our descendants to the latest posterity.—To speak more generally of the present state of the nation, it is such as qualifies us alike for the enjoyment of peace and for the prosecution of war;—for tasting the cup of pleasure under the olive's quiet shade, and for executing plans calculated to exhibit the British victor crowned with wreaths of the laurel. It is a state in which little is to be feared, except that insolence which is wont to graft itself upon national prosperity; and to contribute, as it was supposed to do during the American rebellion, to national adversity.

As a contrast to this description, the present state of France is exhibited to us, and we are told, 'that the Ottoman slave, whom conflagrations terrify; whom the plague consumes; and whom the iron hand of the sultan often oppresses, is yet infinitely more secure of his property, his character, his liberty, and his life, than the most powerful of all the French demagogues. Better serve in Turkey, than rule in France.'

In addition to this, we are informed, that, if a question be introduced into the convention respecting a man's life, 'let him be as guiltless as he can be, he is brought to the bar, without any sufficient space being allowed for preparing his defence; and is arraigned, tried, condemned,



demned, and made to pass from the bar—to the gibbet—and thence to the grave, before his friends, who lived within a post or two of Paris, can possibly learn that he has been denounced.' After this bold, and unqualified position, we are the less surprised to find it roundly asserted, that 'equality would be a sort of curse in heaven itself.'

ART. XXXV. *A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, by the Rev. Christopher Wyvill, late Chairman to the Committee of Association of the County of York.* 8vo. 35 pages, Price 1s. York, Todd. London, Johnson. 1793,

Mr. Wyvill was formerly the friend and political coadjutor of the present premier; the public will therefore be anxious to know, in what manner one gentleman, who appears to have adhered strictly to his principles, addresses himself to another, who is accused of having opposed the petty and personal interests of a minister, to the generous and glorious efforts of a citizen.

Mr. W. begins by intimating his intention of preparing for the press a collection of political papers relative to the subject of parliamentary reform, and particularly certain letters and communications received from Mr. Pitt a few years ago, among which is one entitled *heads of a bill or bills for amending the representation.*

'The resolutions which were then passed by the popular assemblies on the very defective state of our representation, contained principles on which a moderate, but substantial reformation might have been effected; and when you generously undertook to offer to parliament such a temperate plan as the sense of the people, as far as it had been previously declared, seemed to point to, it had been very happy for the public, and not less so for our hereditary rulers, if that plan had not been rejected by the united opposition of their respective partizans. By the regulations alluded to, the great majority of those persons who had complained to parliament of gross abuses in the representation, would have been completely gratified, because the regulations were in fact their own propositions improved by various modifications, which your superior judgment had suggested. Already your regulations, if then adopted, would have operated nearly to the full extent proposed, and would have amputated in the easiest manner, at the option of the persons concerned, many of the smallest, most venal, or most dependent boroughs, and transferred in an adequate degree, and in due proportion, their surrendered franchises to the great communities of the kingdom, the metropolis, the counties, and the great unrepresented towns. This was a mild, a moderate, and yet an effectual system of reformation; not sufficiently extensive perhaps, in the proposed communication of the right of suffrage, but capable of receiving that extension hereafter, without the least derangement of the system then improved, by admitting decent householders to vote for county members; in the mean time securing a very important improvement in the representation of the people; and yet not only avoiding the hazard of a revolution at that moment, but preventing almost the possibility of such a fearful event in every future period of time.'

Convinced of the great utility of this plan, the popular agents declined for some years to press the subject upon parliament; fully confiding in the support of Mr. Pitt whenever the proper moment should arrive. But since 1785 a material change of sentiment has taken place.

place, and various causes have contributed to sour the minds of a considerable portion of the people, and to prepare them for bolder, more decisive, but more hazardous schemes of reformation. Some view the former advocate of their cause with distrust, and abandon his temperate plan for the broad principle of universal suffrage adopted by the Duke of Richmond; while others, we are told, avow their partiality for a republican scheme of government, admire the second revolution of France, and would adopt the principles of it at every public and personal risk.

‘That this enthusiastic zeal for a total, or a very great and dangerous change in the frame of our legislature, may be checked by the rough hand of authority, straining every judicial and military power to suppress discussion and beat down the free spirit of the people; this may be the wish of Mr. Burke and his disciples, but it cannot, I hope, be yours. Every man of humanity must wish to prevent discord and confusion by lenient means; every prudent lover of liberty, must wish to preserve the constitution, not only from external violence and the wild schemes of republican innovators, but from the dangers of internal injury, from those more subtle and more formidable enemies of the constitution, who availing themselves of the present national fervour of royalty, would brand with infamy every man who dares to point out abuses and express his wish for their correction, even on your temperate principles; without which it is plain, that at no distant period inveterate abuses will have become incorrigible.’

Mr. W. thinks, that there never was a time when it more behoved the true friends of the constitution to advance in that middle course by which the dangerous extremes of the ‘rash leveller, and the unprincipled supporter of every abuse,’ may best be avoided.

‘Entertaining these sentiments, [adds he] I deprecate a foreign war as evidently tending on the one hand to increase the danger of anarchy and a forcible revolution, and on the other, of arbitrary power and the loss of popular rights; and I wish to recommend to the great, a lenient and conciliatory disposition; to the people, a firm purpose to vindicate their rights in a temperate way, and with as little variation from your propositions as justice and the existing circumstances will permit. For, that your propositions of reform ought strictly to be adhered to, and would alone be completely satisfactory to the public at this time, I cannot venture to assert to you; but with two additions which accord with the principles of your system in the one case, and with those of justice in the other, I do believe they would be fully approved and permanently acquiesced in by the people. The additions I allude to, are, that the unrepresented householders in England, contributing to parochial taxes, be allowed to vote in the county elections, and that elections in Scotland be placed as nearly as possible on a similar footing with those in England.’

After lamenting that the fears of ‘aristocratical men’ have been wrought up to an extravagant pitch by the ‘wild eloquence of the enemy of popular rights,’ Mr. W. proceeds to give his sentiments on Mr. Pitt’s conduct, both as a minister and a member of parliament. He loudly condemns his ‘declaration of hostility’ to Mr. Grey’s motion for reform, and the uniform system of authority, now harshly and severely exercised, consisting of proclamations branding with one



common mark of infamy, the leveller and the rash republican, and the most orderly and rational reformers, the truest patriots and the best friends of the constitution; of numerous prosecutions tending alike to punish sedition and to suppress the freedom of discussion; of barracks erected in almost every considerable place, calculated equally to intimidate riotous men, and to over-awe and quell the spirit of parliamentary reformation, however pacific, however regular it may have been.' As to the associations which have been the immediate consequence of some of these measures, and which have assumed to themselves the accusatorial power vested by the constitution in the attorney-general or the grand juries of the kingdom, if suffered to proceed in their career, neither discountenanced by government nor opposed by the sense and spirit of the public, 'what would they leave us that is either sweetly confidential in private society, or open, bold and generous in the exertions of public spirited men?' The idea of going to war with the French because they are 'a nation of atheists,' or of avenging the execution of Lewis XVI., is loudly condemned; our right to intermeddle in the internal affairs of any country being expressly denied.

As to the principles of 'liberty and equality,' having been predominant in America, and productive of tranquillity and good order there, for nearly twenty years, it is evident they are not necessarily destructive of the end for which society was formed: the only way to escape the infection of French ideas is to follow the system of neutrality, and adopt the spirit of a moderate reform; opposite measures will probably produce a contrary effect.

'It is from the prevalence of Mr. Burke's politics alone, among the upper classes of society, that the rise of any dangerous disaffection in this country is to be apprehended. To the plain sense of Englishmen, a war commenced with France, on his principles, must appear to be a war on French liberty, to beat down the equitable claims of reformation here, and eventually to destroy every valuable right of the people. Such will be the suspected motives for plunging this country in a war, in which our fleets may be victorious, but in which our successes may be ruinous. For views thus wild and chimerical, the nation, whose wounds received in the late war with America are hardly yet closed up, must prepare to bleed afresh; for objects thus odious and detestable, the industrious classes of the people must forego their comforts; the shoulders already galled with taxes the pernicious consequences of former injustice and folly, must submit again to new and heavier impositions. They will be cheerfully voted no doubt by the faithful commons, but the commons will no longer enjoy the confidence of the public; every vote of credit or supply will then increase the general disgust; and should no greater disaster befall us in the course of hostilities, should nothing unfortunate break forth in Ireland or America, the mere protraction of the war must exhaust the patience of a disabused people. But what may be the contagious effect of French principles, in a country sick of the war of kings, groaning under an intolerable load of taxes, and hopeless of redress from men whom they will cease to consider as their representatives, it is needless to state; to foresee it is easy, to prevent it may become impossible.'

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The perusal of the article now before us, which contains a variety of important observations on the present very critical situation of this country, has afforded us a considerable degree of pleasure, but we cannot forbear testifying our surprise at perceiving the author entertain the most distant idea of the cordial cooperation of a man, by whom he himself, and all the friends of liberty in the nation, have been once already deceived.

ART XXXVI. *The Example of France a Warning to Britain.* By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. Price 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1793.

THE writers, who lately published their sentiments on the recent events in France, have, as we are here told, been so lavish of argument, and so exuberant in theory, that they seem to have relied for success, not so much 'on force of facts,' as 'on ingenuity in weaving curious webs of reasoning.'

'I am inclined [says Mr. Y.] to think the application of theory to matters of government, a surprising imbecility in the human mind; for men to be ready to trust to reason in enquiries where experiment is equally at hand for their guide, has been pronounced by various great authorities to be in every other science the grossest folly. Why the observation should not extend to the science of legislation, will not easily appear.

'My personal pursuit for a long series of years, has confirmed me in the habit of experimental enquiry: I have observed on so many occasions the fallacy of reasoning, even when exerted with great force of talents, that I am apt, whenever facts are not clearly discerned, to question rather than decide; to doubt much readier than to deliberate; and to value the citation of one new experimented case in point, more than an hundred brilliant declamations. Having resided a good deal in France during the progress of the revolution, to which I was for some time a warm friend; having passed through every province of the kingdom, examined all her principal manufactures, gained much instruction relative to the state of her commerce, and attended minutely to the situation of her people: it was natural on my return to England, to consult with attention the legislative acts of the new government, and to procure by correspondence and conversation with persons on whom I could depend, such intelligence as was necessary to enable me to satisfy my curiosity concerning the result of the most singular revolution recorded in the annals of mankind.'

After this introduction, the author proceeds to investigate the present situation of the French, under the heads of government, personal security, and security of property. In respect to the first of these, he observes, notwithstanding so many hundred books and pamphlets as have been published in praise of an edifice erected on the Rights of Man, 'that it has brought more misery, poverty, devastation, imprisonment, blood-shed and ruin on France, in four years, than the old government did in a century.' The state of the nation respecting the second (personal security) is dispatched in a few words, 'there is no such thing.'

As to the third (security of property), it is asserted, that the citizens are driven away, 'not through guilt but horror,' and, being then pronounced emigrants, their estates are confiscated.

Such are here said to have been the melancholy consequences of the French revolution, and they are attributed to three prominent features 'in the new system of soi-disant philosophers:' 1. Personal representation;—2. The Rights of Man,—and 3. Equality.

After execrating the idea of the first of these, and affirming, that the exercise of the second might be found much sooner in Constantinople than in Paris, Mr. Y. speaks thus of the third.

'As to equality, the last support of the French system, it is too farcical and ridiculous to merit a serious observation—it is worthy only of *monfieur Egalite*! who has wasted three hundred thousand pounds a year, in order to stand on record the first fool in Europe, and to give the better part of his countrymen occasion to call that assumption great impudence; for he who was below all, can be *equal* to none. A genius who sacrificed the first property of any subject in Europe, and the name of Bourbon, to become the subject of debate in an assembly of taylors, stay-makers, barbers, and butchers, whether he should not be banished from that country which he had disgraced by his crimes!

'The equal right of all citizens to equal laws, was declared in the first constitution; the new equality of the convention, therefore, means something more. Equality of right, to equal justice;—that in the law all are equal;—this equality was decreed by the constituent assembly, and clearly ascertained to be the law of the land; the new declaration of equality must therefore mean something more, or it meant nothing; if equality of rights were only in contemplation, why call the year 1792 the first year of equality? A clearer proof cannot be desired, that the equality of 1792 was not the equality of 1789; let the writers and speakers who assert the term in the two points to mean the same thing, reconcile the absurdity if they are able. To the apprehension of common understanding, property was glanced at; that the French populace so understood it, there is abundant proof indeed, for propositions were immediately made for the equal division of wealth, and received in a manner that left no doubt of the measure being perfectly to their taste; and these propositions have been carried into execution much more than commonly admitted in England.

'But the curse of these principles of equality is, that they never can allow tranquillity to be the inheritance of a people: supposing it possible for a country, infested with such doctrines, to be well governed, such good government will infallibly generate wealth and inequality; and by consequence the necessity of new civil wars and confusion to restore the equality which would for ever tend to variation: thus, under such fine spun principles, peace could never inhabit; tranquillity would be banished, even by the merits, supposing there were any, of the system; and new arrangements of property would be periodically to make, at the caprice and tyranny of those who, possessing nothing, would  
look

look to confusion as their support, and to anarchy as their birth-right.'

We shall here present our readers with *the regal evils of France* as contrasted with the *republican cures*.

'Land taxes the evil;—cure—seizing the land that paid them.

'Feudal quit rents paid by the estate of the people the grievance—remedy—seizing the estate itself of the nobility and clergy.

'A deficit of fifty-six millions in the revenue, the *misfortune*;—covered—by a new deficit of three hundred millions.

'Ten millions of royal paper, the *complaint*;—three thousand millions of assignats, the cure.

'A national debt of three hundred millions, the malady;—one of nine thousand millions, the *remedy*.

'Marie Antoinetta *condemned* for the follies of a necklace—Mademoiselle Theroigne *applauded* for leading prisoners to slaughter.

'The arbitrary government of Lewis xvi.—changed—for the despotism of Marat.

'Drawing men for the militia, the *cruelty*;—forcing them into volunteer *corps*, the *favour*.

'Lawyers and suits, the *misfortune*;—cure—the summary jurisdiction of the lanthorn.

'Twenty-five millions, the expence of one king, the burthen—one hundred and fifty millions, the charge of seven hundred kings, the *ease*.

'Seven prisoners in the bastille, the grievance—Seven thousand in the municipal dungeons, the *cure*.

'Trial by jury instituted—and one thousand two hundred throats cut in one night, in trial by pike.'

The author now before us praises the present 'patriotic associations,' deprecates the thought of a reform at this moment, and in order to obviate every idea of political tergiversation from his former sentiments thus apologizes for his present conduct: 'but in attempting to give expressions inadequate to the indignation every one must feel at the horrible events now passing in France, I am sensible that I may be reproached with changing my politics, my "principles," as it has been expressed;—my principles I certainly have not changed, because if there is one principle more predominant than another in my politics, *it is the principle of change*. I have been too long a farmer, to be governed by any thing but events; I have a constitutional abhorrence of theory, of all trust in abstract reasoning, and consequently a reliance merely on experience, in other words on events, the only principle worthy of an experimenter.'

With all due deference to Mr. Y.'s knowledge, we imagine that he is not only peremptory, but premature in his decisions, for until France has been relieved from a combination of the crowned heads of Europe, and allowed to settle into a permanent government, the result of her new principles, the grand and novel experiment she is now making cannot be termed complete.

ART.



ART. XXXVII. *A Letter to a foreign Nobleman, on the present Situation of France, with Respect to the other States of Europe.* By E. P. Pictet, Citizen of Geneva. 8vo. 103 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Hoo. ham and Carpenter. 1793.

Mr. Pictet ridicules the idea of a 'pure democracy' being calculated for the government of any state, however narrow its extent, and evinces the most sovereign contempt for those demagogues who lead the 'misguided citizens' of his own or any other country. After lamenting that the people of France have been conducted 'step by step, from one degree of guilt to another, through a regular succession of the most atrocious villanies,' and expressing his astonishment, that no man was found among them possessed of sufficient courage and personal consequence to form an union of the discontented, and check the progress 'of general disaffection,' he delivers his opinion on the conduct of Mr. Necker.

\* Above all, how culpable is that minister, so puffed up with his own vanity and conceit, whose equivocal conduct must have made him suspected of concealing some sinister views, if his well-known character did not screen him from the imputation! Proud of a disinterestedness, which his affluent fortune rendered of little difficulty, he fondly imagined that a vain parade of words would command an influence over members, with whom he was wholly unacquainted; and neglected those numberless advantages, which his situation afforded him, of securing a majority in the assembly. Too confident of his own powers to take any steps of prevention, and destitute of the intuitive sagacity that should characterise a statesman, he could not perceive that his *compte rendu*, his book on the finances, his several disputes with Mr. Calonne, and the wrong measures of his predecessors, had so agitated the public mind, that nothing could prevent a total subversion of the state, but a firm and a decided conduct, which would have ensured the respect and obedience of the people. But he was too tenacious of his place to perceive the moment that presented the only resource of saving the monarchy; to persuade his master to quit Versailles, and overawe the factious, by putting himself at the head of those subjects, on whose fidelity he could still rely.'

It is thus that Mr. P. expresses himself relative to Geneva:

\* However plausible may be the idea that has gone forth, and which even your excellency, perhaps, may have entertained, that the pestilential source which gave rise to those deplorable systems, that so fatally poison the peace of Europe, exists in my unhappy country: I cannot dissemble my indignation, when I hear my countrymen stigmatised with the reproach of being the advocates and apostles of the revolution. The explosion may have been hastened by those political disputes with which Geneva has been agitated from the beginning of this century. . . . It is not improbable but the American war has matured an evil, which, in my opinion however, owes its real origin to very different and more preponderating causes.

\* It is indeed considerably indebted for its success to the unremitting exertions of the Clavieres, the Bidermans, the Grenus, and other Genevese of that stamp, who are now become its leaders, or its most zealous satellites. Banished from Geneva in the year 1782, the objects of universal contempt and detestation, they never ventured to  
appear

appear again in their native country; or if they returned, the public indignation did not suffer them to fix their habitation there. But the revolution has furnished them with the means of playing their favourite part, and armed them with those powers of wreaking their vengeance against those honest citizens whom they regard as their personal enemies. To this insatiable thirst of revenge I attribute the storm now impending over us; and I am much afraid that nothing will appease their rage, but the introduction of those bloody scenes amongst us, of which Avignon and the Comtat have exhibited so tremendous a spectacle. But with the exception of these desperate wretches, and some of the lowest dregs of the people, I can assure your excellency, that the revolution has made on the minds of our best men, those whom we can truly call patriots, and their families, a just and lasting impression; and even the majority of those who have been recently admitted into the class of citizens, have invariably entertained the same opinion of it.

Since this was written, a new revolution has taken place in Geneva, which proves that the author now before us was not critically correct in his opinion concerning the political sentiments of his fellow-citizens.

Mr. P. concludes his tract, by delineating the 'outline of a philosophical history of the late extraordinary events on the continent.'

ART. XXXVIII. *The Resolutions of the first Meeting of the Friends to the Liberty of the Press, December 19, 1792. Also the Declaration of the second Meeting, Jan. 22, 1793, written by the Hon. Thomas Erskine: to which is added a Letter to Mr. Reeves, Chairman of the Association for preserving Liberty and Property; by Thomas Law, Esq; late one of the Committee of that Society. 8vo. 27 pages. Price 6d. Ridgway. 1793.*

THE resolutions of the first meeting of the friends of the liberty of the press have already appeared in all the newspapers. Mr. Erskine states in the 'declaration' agreed to at the second meeting, that the peculiar excellence of the English constitution, 'in which indeed the value of every government may be summed up, is, that it creates an equal rule of action for the whole nation, and an impartial administration of justice under it.'

'From these master principles [continues he] results that happy, unsuspecting, and unsuspected freedom, which for ages has distinguished society in England, and which has united Englishmen in an enthusiasm for their country, and a reverence for their laws.

'To maintain this fearless tranquillity of human life, the prime blessing of social union, the power of accusation was not given to *uninjured* individuals, much less to *voluntary, undefined, unauthorized* associations of men, acting without responsibility, and open to irregular and private motives of action; but was conferred upon the supreme executive magistrate, as more likely to look down upon the mass of the community with an unimpassioned eye; and even that wisely placed trust guarded and bridled by the personal responsibility of those officers by which the crown is obliged to exercise its authority, and in the higher order of crimes (which on principle should extend to all) guarded once again by the office of the grand jury, interposed as a shield between the people and the very laws enacted by themselves.

'These



• These admirable provisions appear to be founded in a deep acquaintance with the principles of society, and to be attended with the most important benefits to the public, because, tempered again, and finally, with the trial by the country, they enable the English constitution to ratify the existence of a *strong, hereditary, executive* government, consistently with the security of popular freedom. By this arrangement of the royal prerogative of accusation, so restrained and mitigated in its course, the crown becomes an object of wholesome, but not dangerous jealousy; which, while it prevents it from overstepping its constitutional limits, endears the people to one another from the sense of the necessity of union amongst themselves, for the preservation of their privileges against a power dangerous to remove, but equally dangerous to exist, unobserved and unbalanced. Under this system, making allowances for the vices and errors inseparable from humanity, state accusations, *in modern times*, though sometimes erroneous, have not often been rash or malevolent, and the criminal, under the weight of the firm hand of justice, has been supported by the indulgent fraternal tribunal of his country. But under the circumstances which assemble us together, all these provisions appear to be endangered.'

After pointing out the constitutional mode of bringing offenders to trial, and to punishment, Mr. E. proceeds thus:

• But when without any state necessity, or requisition from the crown, or parliament of the kingdom, bodies of men voluntarily intrude themselves into a sort of partnership of authority with the executive power; and when from the universal and admitted interest of the whole nation, in the object or *pretex*ts of such associations, the people (if they continue to spread as they have done) may be said to be in a manner represented by them, where is the accused to find justice among his peers, when arraigned by such combinations? Where is the boasted trial by the country, if the country is thus to become informer and accuser?

• Where is the cautious distrust of accusation, if the grand jury may themselves (or some of them) have informed against the object of it, brought in the very bill which they are to find, and subscribed for the prosecution of it? Where in the end is the mild, complacent, relenting countenance of the jury for trial—that last consolation which the humanity of England never denied even to men taken in arms against her laws, if the pannel is to come reeking from the vestry-rooms, where they have been listening to harangues concerning the absolute necessity of extinguishing the very crimes and the criminals, which they are to decide upon in judgment, and to condemn by their verdict?

• But if these proceedings must thus evidently taint the administration of justice, even in the superior courts, where the judges from their independence, their superior learning, and their further removal from common life, may be argued to be likely to assist juries in the due discharge of their office—what must be the condition of the courts of quarter sessions, whose jurisdiction over these offences are co-ordinate—where the judges are the very gentlemen who lead those associations in every county and city in the kingdom, and where the jurors are either their tenants and dependents, or their neighbours in the country, justly looking up to them with confidence and affection, as their friends  
and



and protectors in the direction of their affairs? Is this a trial by an English court and jury? It would be infinitely more manly, and less injurious to the accused, to condemn him at once without a hearing, than to mock him with the empty forms of the British constitution, when the substance and effects of it are destroyed.'

This very spirited declaration is followed by a letter from Mr. Law, formerly a member of the committee, to Mr. Reeves, chairman of the association for preserving 'liberty and property against republicans and levellers,' in which Mr. L. expresses his disapprobation and abhorrence of the custom lately introduced, of receiving and acting upon anonymous information, as well as of the inquisitorial mode of concerting prosecutions with the officers of the crown.

ART. XXXIX. *The Patriot. Addressed to the People, on the present State of Affairs in Britain, and in France. With Observations on Republican Government, and Discussions of the Principles advanced in the Writings of Thomas Paine.* 8vo. 76 pages. Price 1s. Edinburgh, Dickson. London, Nicol. 1793.

THE author of this pamphlet, which is written with a considerable portion of ingenuity, presents us with a description of the flourishing and happy situation of Great Britain as contrasted with the present miserable and melancholy state of France, and then triumphantly exclaims with the poet,

'Look now on this picture, and on this \*.'

After predicting that the government of the American republic will be soon changed, and treating Mr. Paine's calculations with much asperity, he concludes thus:

'Friends and countrymen,—This nation has now, for above an hundred years, enjoyed an uninterrupted course of public felicity, such as the history of mankind has no where else exhibited. It has risen to greatness by the strength and energy of its constitution: a system which philosophy is proud to trace through all its springs of operation; where each part is nicely adjusted to the production of the great object for which it is constructed,—the happiness of the people. Liberty, security, strength of character, humanity, learning, wealth, and peace, are the blessings which it yields to us, and ours, and by which approving providence has ratified the deed of our ancestors in the revolution settlement. This great system was then finally guarded against the encroachments of power, without being arrested in the progress of improvement. We have enjoyed a race of sovereigns, attached from principle to liberty and the laws; and he who now wears the crown of these realms, has a claim, which even faction cannot contest, to that most dignified of all appellations, the father of his people. His piety to God, his domestic virtues, his strict decorum of manners, oblige us to add to our allegiance the tribute of our esteem; while his reverence for the laws, his approved attachment to the cause of freedom, and his inviolable fidelity to the constitution, render our loyalty to the monarch the pledge of security to our rights.

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\* Shakespeare's Hamlet.

‘ It is one of the excellencies of the British constitution, that it is calculated to form the public character of the sovereign; to make him love it, to associate inseparably in his mind the ideas of prerogative and of privilege, instead of ever beholding them in contrast; and to cherish in his heart the sole ambition of leading free-men under the banners of the law.

‘ The happy state of man in political society, is under limited monarchy—mixed government—the British constitution.’

**ART. XL.** *The political Adventures of Harry Humorous and Timothy True Blue, with an Ode, by the latter, to the Crown and Anchor Association. Being a Touch on the Times. Including an affectionate Appeal to the brave Seamen and Soldiers. Inscribed to the Right Honourable Edmund Burke.* 8vo. 94 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Harrison and Co. 1792.

THE whole of this pamphlet, has the same burden as the chorus in the concluding ode, viz. ‘ God save the king!’

**ART. XLI.** *A Bill presented to the House of Lords by Lord Rawdon; intituled an Act for amending the Law of Imprisonment on Mesne Process; for better regulating the Law and Practice of Bail; and for the Relief of unfortunate, and the Punishment of fraudulent insolvent Debtors.* 8vo. 40 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

IT is at length generally acknowledged, that an act of parliament is at present wanting, in order to empty our crowded jails, to ease the situation of honest, but unfortunate debtors, to restrain the rapaciousness of the harpies of the law, and to contribute as much as possible to the security and relief of the suffering creditor.

‘ The following is the preamble, and principal clauses of the bill brought in by lord Rawdon, and which, with some few additions and amendments, we hope to see speedily converted into a law.

‘ Whereas it is found by experience, that the present law and practice of arrest and imprisonment on mesne process, of bail, and of imprisonment in execution, require amendment in sundry particulars, for the purposes of protecting defendants and unfortunate debtors, advancing the remedy of plaintiffs and creditors, and detecting and exposing dishonesty: *May it therefore please your majesty, that it may be enacted; and be it enacted* by the king’s most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, &c. &c. 1. That from and after the——day of——no person shall be held to bail upon any process issuing out of any superior or inferior court, where the cause of action shall not amount to twenty pounds and upwards.

‘ 2. That so much of all acts of parliament as authorize the arrest and imprisonment of defendants in certain districts and jurisdictions where the cause of action amounts to less than twenty pounds, are hereby repealed.

‘ 3. That the proceedings in all debts amounting to twenty pounds or upwards, shall be in conformity to acts passed in the 12th of George 1, and 19th of George III.

‘ 4. That



\* 4. That every person who shall be arrested as a defendant on *mesne process*, where the sum or sums indorsed on the back of the writ or process, shall not exceed 500*l.* may upon such arrest before being committed to prison, deposit, or pay into the hands of the sheriff, under sheriff, &c. a sum of money amounting to the sum or sums indorsed on the back of the writ, and one hundred pounds more, if the sum or sums so indorsed shall amount to one hundred pounds or upwards, and fifty pounds more, if the sum or sums shall not amount to one hundred pounds; and in every such case, the defendant shall be delivered out of custody, in the same manner as if he or she had given a bail bond for her appearance in the action.

\* 5. That a prisoner may insist on being immediately carried to such gaol or prison as he or she may be sent to by virtue of the writ or process; and the officer shall be obliged, at the expiration of ten days, to carry all prisoners to their respective jails.

\* 6. That in order to prevent frivolous and vexatious arrests and imprisonments, all persons taken into custody upon *mesne process*, shall be delivered from the same in consequence of an application to any of the judges, upon filing common bail, unless the plaintiff shall have made oath, that the defendant made use of fraudulent means, in order to acquire credit, or that there is reason to suspect that the defendant intends to abscond or withdraw beyond the jurisdiction of any of the courts of England, or conceal or convey away his, or her effects, &c.

\* 7. That all persons arrested on *mesne process*, who shall be proved to be truly insane, shall be discharged on finding common bail.

\* 8. That all persons in such a state of sickness as to render it dangerous to move them from the place where they are arrested, shall be allowed to remain in their apartments a certain number of hours, according to circumstances, and a longer time shall be granted on exhibiting the affidavits of a physician, &c. before a justice of the peace, until application shall have been made to a judge.

\* 9. Special bail may on due notice justify themselves at a judge's chambers, in the same manner as in open court, and such bail may be there received, without the consent of the plaintiff or plaintiffs.

\* 10. That all prisoners on *mesne process* on making oath of being unable to defray the expence of their necessary subsistence, shall receive four shillings and eight pence on every Monday in every week, and unless the plaintiff or plaintiffs, &c. &c. shall agree to the payment of the same, the defendant shall be discharged out of custody.

\* 11. That all prisoners who may be superfedable shall be delivered out of custody.

\* 12. That the rules of the King's-Bench, and Fleet prison shall cease.

\* 13. That in order to prevent a creditor from having an absolute power of detaining a debtor in prison, after having given all the satisfaction his or her circumstances will allow, part of the act passed in the 32 George 11. shall be repealed.

\* 14. That lists of all prisoners who may have continued in custody as debtors in execution, for six calendar months, shall be published  
in



in the London Gazette on the first Saturday of every month, with the sum or sums for which each stands charged in execution annexed.

' 15. That all debtors in execution for sums amounting to upwards of 300l. shall apply by petition to the lord high chancellor, &c. who is hereby empowered to administer the proper relief.

' 16. That the discharge of all insolvents liberated under this act, shall be holden sufficient to discharge the said insolvents out of custody, for all debts, due or demandable previous to presenting their respective petitions; but this shall not be meant to affect the execution of creditors, against estate or effects.

' And 17. That all persons who shall give an account of themselves with intent to deceive, or who shall have concealed themselves, or absconded, or departed out of the kingdom, &c. shall be imprisoned for such space of time as the court may think fit, set in and upon the pillory, or transported, according to their sentence, &c.' o.

## P O E T R Y.

ART. XLII. *Modern Manners, a Poem. In two Cantos. By Horace Juvenal.* 4to. 32 pages. Price 4s. Evans. 1793.

HAS this writer the modesty to insinuate, by the name he has assumed, that he unites in himself the powers of the two most admired satirists of antiquity, Horace and Juvenal? If so, it is our duty to inform him, that he neither possesses the easy and polite gaiety with which the former

— circum præcordia ludit,

Callidus excusso populum suspendere naso;

nor glows with that "noble fire" of virtuous indignation, with which the latter every where censures vice. But if he will be contented with the moderate praise of having marked with some degree of attention, and satirized with some portion of the *vis comica*, several of the present fashionable follies, thus much will be allowed him. The modern absurdity of attempting to represent the sports of the field upon the stage, is ridiculed with spirit in the following lines. p. 22.

' Let GENIUS soar to FAME's sublime abode,  
While *folly's* children tread the beaten road,  
While listless husbands sleep 'till noon arrives,  
And modish lovers,—flirt with modish wives;  
When modern dinners are serv'd up at nine;  
And modern epicures can scarcely dine,  
Ere, to assist digestion, they repair,  
The raptures of a *midnight chase* to share!  
The chase! not like the common stile of things,  
Such as are made for *sportsmen*,—and for *kings*;  
But where, in rows, "thrice feather'd" *belles* resort,  
With waxen tapers to illumine the sport!  
Where *reynard* hears, *on boards*, the death-wing'd hoof,  
And flies to cover,—'neath a *canvas roof*;  
Where city crops, and booted bucks repair,  
To elbow, ogle, see the world,—and swear!

To

To beat the boxkeepers, and cry *encore*,  
To vote that INCHEALD's *moral* plays' a bore,  
With well splash'd legs to rush into the box,  
Disturb the audience, and cry,—'where's the fox?'  
'This is *the thing* by Jove!—why this is *fun*,  
We'll have a row before the night is done!

O ye box lobby heroes!—men of shops!  
*Bravoes* in *buckskin*!—HANNIBALS at *bops*!  
Did ye but know what wretched things ye are,  
Despis'd by men,—and laugh'd at by the fair,  
You'd shrink to grubs, from grubs you'd fade away,  
The short-liv'd *insects*,—of a *short-liv'd day*!

The poem concludes with a handsome compliment to a certain great man, who

—'grown prudent, learns the way  
To live content on forty pounds a day.'

Upon which fashion

'Cries, vulgar! wretched! what, his horses gone!  
His giants, jockeys, grooms, and phaëton!  
What, no more charming breakfasts, fete champetres,  
Where epicures consume what folly caters;  
No dinners, serv'd with elegant expence,  
Where frothy flatt'ry serves for solid sense;  
No racing, betting, driving, or cajoling,  
No sycophantic simile each loss consoling,  
No levees, liv'ries, guards, and crowded halls,  
No bawling catches,—and no catching BALLS,  
Sweet scenes! of dancing, singing, eating, drinking,  
Of every rational delight,—*save thinking*!

'Shall *prudence* and *propriety* supply  
The vacant chair of *PRODIGALITY*!  
Must *fashion* yield at last to *honest worth*,  
And *VIRTUE* claim precedency of *BIRTH*!  
Shall HE, whom I have nurs'd with so much art,  
Consult, *at last*, the feelings of his *HEART*!  
Spurn all my lessons, laugh at all my skill,  
And tell the world that *FASHION* counsels ill?  
Since *Conscience* dares affect such winning graces,  
How few of *fashion's* tribe will shew their faces!  
Oh direful change! 'twill spread throughout the nation,  
And modest *MERIT* *Lord it over FASHION*!

ART. XLIII. *An Address, in Verse, to the Author of the Poetical and Philosophical Essay on the French Revolution.* 4to. 12 pages. 1s. Owen. 1793.

THE poetry of this address is by no means despicable: of its spirit the reader will judge, when he is told, that the author makes Mr. Burke the British Ulysses, and Mr. Courtenay the British Therites; and that he can find nothing in Courtenay's verses but dullness, and nothing in the harangues of Sh——n and G——y but nonsense.

ART. XLIV. *A Poem on the late tragic Event of the French King's Death: conveying an Address to the surrounding Kingdoms; the emphatic Parting of the King with his Family; Soliloquies of the Queen respecting the Circumstances before, at, and after, the Execution; the supposed Death of her Daughter; concluded by a short Dialogue between the Dauphin and a female Attendant.* Small 4to. 23 pages. Price 1s. Vernor and Hood. 1793.

A FEEBLE attempt to fall in with the popular impression, on the tragic event of the execution of Lewis XVI., in which the writer must rely more for the success of his verses on the horrid particulars which he minutely represents, than upon his powers of versification, or of poetical description.

ART. XLV. *Every One has his Fault. A Comedy, in Five Acts, as it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden.* By Mrs. Inchbald. The third Edition. 8vo. 114 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1793.

As a faithful copyist of nature Mrs. Inchbald may be allowed, both from her former publications, and from the present comedy, to possess considerable merit. She excels more, however, in representing the serious and tender, than the gay and humourous. In the present play the pathetic parts are certainly the best. The characters of *Mr. Irwin* and *lady Eleanor Irwin*, though by no means new, are supported with great propriety; and their situations, with the sentiments and passion which these produce, are such as to afford the spectator all the luxury of sympathy. Not that the comic characters are destitute of humour. *Mr. and Mrs. Placid*, though in truth little more than *Jerry Sneak* and his wife in higher life, enliven the piece. The character of *Harmony*, though founded on an idea which was perhaps never realized in the extent here represented—that of a benevolent man, telling *white lies* to put other people in good humour with themselves and one another, and to forward his own generous designs, is nevertheless conceived and executed with boldness and spirit, and has a considerable share in the merit of the play. The plot affords sufficient business, without confusion; and the language is throughout easy, correct, and well suited to the characters. It is not easy to detach any scene from the piece, as an extract; but we promise our readers much pleasure in perusing the whole.

## NOVELS.

ART. XLVI. *The German Gil Blas; or the Adventures of Peter Claus. Translated from the German of Baron Kniegge.* 3 vols. 12mo. 780 pages. Price 9s. sewed. Kearsley. 1793.

THE German Gil Blas resembles the Gil Blas de Santillane in the variety of its characters; but is much inferior to it in wit and humour. The hero of this piece is conducted through many surprizing adventures, in which he meets with persons who exhibit a great diversity of temper, habit, and manners; and these are abundantly sufficient to keep awake the reader's attention, and render the performance interesting: but he displays little of that gaiety, which enlivens the  
the



the French Gil Blas, or of that drollery, by which the latter so frequently excites mirth and laughter.

Peter Claus, the son of a shoe-maker, being early left an orphan, is taken under the protection of a lady of quality; passes in succession through the different occupations of a valet, a common soldier, a quack-doctor's attendant, an author, and a comedian; on a sudden is, against his inclinations, united in marriage to a handsome rich and amiable woman; is admired and applauded as a musician; obtains the place of secretary to a nobleman; is made director of finances by means of a Bologna lap-dog; is honoured with the order of knighthood; falls into disgrace through female jealousy and intrigue; and retires with his family to a country estate, where he finishes his days in peace. An episodical tale is introduced, highly extravagant and improbable; in which are interwoven some strokes of political satire.

The part which we shall select as a specimen is taken from our hero's adventures as a comedian, in which the author introduces a description of theatrical life, and a critique upon the character of Polonius in Hamlet. VOL. I. P. 254.

‘It is a good thing to be light-hearted; for is it not useless to afflict ourselves at what cannot be remedied? The whole philosophy of an adventurer consists in meeting every event with the same degree of carelessness; it is a practical philosophy, ever consoling, and proved by experience to be a restorative balm to the man who determines to enjoy the present moment, and has been equally effectual in every age, from Alexander the Great to Cartouche the Great. It now offered me a salutary remedy against the vexation I experienced. “What,” said I, “if imitating Reyerberg, I entered the lists of Roscius? I am a man of considerable talents, proper for all parts; and what’s more, play on the violin, so that occasionally I may be employed in the orchestra. How agreeably would my friend be surprised to find me in the same occupation which he has so lately embraced.” Sudden resolutions are frequently best; and after giving some time to sorrow for the loss of my money and works, I repaired to the celebrated Schroeder, entreating him to give me a trial in the part of *Clarvigo*.

‘My vanity was not a little offended, I confess, when this man, instead of being flattered with the idea of producing at his theatre a nurseling of the muses, of merit equal to mine, questioned me particularly on my origin, manners, and acquaintance. “Unhappily,” added he, “the greater number of our managers, whether from ignorance, or carelessness to the public, take so little care in the choice of their subjects, that they permit men without education, greedy of gain, and born of the very dregs of the people, to set up for actors; composing their company of reduced valets, debauched stewards, and discharged waiting maids. Are those proper persons to purify the taste of a city? to re-animate the zeal for virtue, and to afford the citizen a moral and rational amusement? If every man is to be admitted who is not hunch-backed, or crooked-legged, though ignorant of the purity of language necessary in the profession, stranger to science, unacquainted with the different manners in life, and those of other nations; destitute of all idea of poetry and harmony, negligent in his attitudes, dress, and behaviour, without knowledge of mankind or experience, having never felt the passion he means to express, and to-

tally ignorant of that virtue which he should represent as amiable ; inebriated when he performs Seneca or a misanthrope ; gloomy when he acts the benevolent friend of humanity ; and having represented *Odoardo* on the stage, sells his wife to an Englishman after the play. Doubtless, if such people are admitted as actors, the theatre cannot be a school to mend the heart. But shame be to such characters, who attempt to become actors, and yet greater shame to those who protect them. I know what I owe to myself and to the public, and would prefer having but six actors who felt the importance of their situation, rather than to engage forty at the same expence, of the above description. The opinion I have formed of you is advantageous ; your features are in your favour, though even your writings should have been the offspring of want rather than genius. But deliberate thoroughly before you embrace so hazardous a profession ; you are unacquainted with the difficulties you have to encounter, the humiliation you must undergo ; in vain is a man accomplished, or a perfect comedian ; the stage lays him open to the criticism of the greatest blockheads, who consider him only as a hired buffoon. The profession is accompanied by public disdain ; or should you be happy enough to be esteemed sufficiently to gain you admittance to the tables of the great, and pretended connoisseurs, they only invite you to flatter their pride ; so that, upon the whole, you will not find in a theatrical life the satisfaction you have promised yourself."—He continued speaking to me for a long time to the same purpose, giving me the most unanswerable reasons why I should decline my project ; but as opposition ever serves to strengthen our inclinations, I more firmly entreated him to give me a trial ; he at length reluctantly consented.

• The day fixed for the representation of *Clavigo* arrived ; I had thoroughly studied my part, and already began to feel the difficulties of the art to which I had now devoted myself. The rehearsals made me comprehend the importance of a thousand little circumstances, which I had before regarded as trifles, all tending to shew the difficulty of success ; but, thanks be to the care and instructions of the manager, the public received me with tolerable satisfaction. I was immediately engaged at the theatre, though in an inferior line ; for the critics at Hamburg are among the most difficult. I trembled for my friend, who had only played at Mannheim, where the taste is not so refined.

• The first character I played after my admittance was the old councillor in Hamlet ; in this part, however conformable to my talents, I found some difficulty ; for though we may add greatly to the merit of a part, it is very possible we may fail in the attempt, if we are unacquainted with the character in its full extent and smallest minutiae. Perhaps some of my readers may peruse with pleasure my observations on this singular personage, formed by the creative genius of Shakespeare. Hamlet is perpetually throwing ridicule on the old councillor, who, when he talks to the king or queen, advances the most ridiculous and silly things, yet when he takes leave of his son Laertes, he gives him the most wise and prudent counsels, thereby shewing his knowledge of the world. His children love him tenderly, and bewail his death with the most unfeigned sorrow. Thus apparent contradictions originate entirely from the want of skill in the actors, who usually give the ridiculous and wild discourse of the old man



with a cold seriousness, thus committing the greatest of absurdities. He is a skilful and artful courtier, who well knowing the unworthiness and duplicity of the king, feels the danger of his situation, which he wishes to relinquish without offence; he therefore plays the buffoon in the presence of the king and queen, fatiguing them with ridiculous *bon mots*; thus avoiding a serious explanation on the malady of the young prince. He appears to wish to be thought a tiresome chatterer, that in case the project of the king to unite Hamlet with Ophelia, his daughter, should fail, he might be excused from the weakness of his understanding; he acts uniformly according to the circumstance; at court all he says is folly; thus he performs the buffoon, without being in reality such; and the actor should perfectly understand how to distinguish the assumed from the real part of his character. In his house, and in the bosom of his family, his discourse possesses dignity, understanding, warmth, and sensibility. The performance of this character absolutely requires the observations I have been making, and which, if neglected, the feelings of the audience revolt at the poet for sacrificing a man of so little importance. It is for his dissimulation, duplicity, and timidity, that he is punished; had he been really a fool, he never would have experienced the fate the poet has allotted him.

‘ This digression may prove, that we ought never to neglect a part, however unimportant it may appear. The highest characters are painted in the strongest colours, and are frequently less difficult to perform than simple confidants which do not interest us. The first inspire and animate by degrees the actor, however destitute he may be of sensibility; the spectator, equally inflamed by the passions which he sees represented, is not in a state to judge whether he is too warm, or carries the resemblance beyond the bounds of probability. The confidant, on the contrary, must not only be a respectful hearer, but also a tender friend; for a length of time obliged to remain silent and motionless, he must suddenly become interested and warm (though heaven knows how) when the moment arrives that he is to appear concerned for the hero; the critics deeming him unpardonable, if he appears less moved than the spectators. They never consider, that it is difficult to preserve the same interest for what we have so often seen represented, read, and studied; particularly when the zeal of the actor is not encouraged by applause; and who ever knew or heard a confidant applauded?’

‘ Heroes of the theatre, and ye critics, warm to condemn, pay some little attention to these slight observations; they are not mine, but those of nature. How often have I shuddered under the absurd opinion of pretended connoisseurs, who imagine that they purchase for three livres the right of praising or condemning, according to their caprice, both the poet and actor!’

The style of the translation is sufficiently correct.

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BOOKS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE.

ART. XLVII. *Elementary Dialogues, for the Improvement of Youth.*  
By J. H. Campe. Translated by Mr. Seymour. Illustrated with  
Sixteen



Sixteen Copper-Plates. Small 8vo. 192 pages. Price 3s. sewed. Hookham. 1792.

THE author of the original work, of which this is a translation, is a celebrated German, who has devoted his attention principally to the theory and the practice of education, and has written other treatises upon the subject. His plan in the present work has at least the merit of originality. It is, by the help of familiar instances, explained in conversations, and illustrated by plates, to give children a clear idea of the several powers and operations of the human mind, and furnish them with a correct explanation of the meaning of such metaphysical terms as are in ordinary use. As the design is new, we cannot explain it so well as by a short quotation. —The tutor surrounded by several pupils having taught them that the soul is rational, because it can perceive distinctly what produces a thing, and what a thing produces, that it has an idea of cause and effect—the dialogue proceeds as follows: p. 36.

‘*Tutor.*—Undoubtedly you have already remarked the causes of several effects. For example, it rains at present; whence does the rain proceed?

‘*Charles.*—From the clouds.

‘*Tutor.*—What then are the clouds?

‘*George.*—The cause of rain,

‘*Tutor.*—And what is rain?

‘*John.*—An effect of the clouds.

‘*Tutor.*—And how do you call the power or faculty of the soul which gives you a conception of this?

‘*All.*—Reason.

‘*Tutor.*—Very well. Here is a print which may serve to remind you of this faculty of the soul. It represents a rainbow, and that lad is endeavouring to discover the cause of it.

‘*George.*—What has he got in his hand?

‘*Tutor.*—A triangular glass called a prism. When the glass is turned to the sun, so that the rays of the latter pass through it, they are divided into seven parts, each of which appears of a different colour, in the following order; violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, and red. Now the lad observes the same colours in the rainbow; and as he has remarked, when one appears, that there are humid vapours, or drops of rain in the air, he concludes from thence, that the sun-beams, in passing through them, are divided in the same manner, as when a prism is opposed to them. To be the better assured of this, he presents to the sun a glass full of water, and beholding with pleasure behind the glass, the same colours which had appeared behind the prism and in the rainbow, he is convinced that the rainbow is an effect of the sun-beams and watry vapours found in the air. He has therefore distinctly perceived the cause of the rainbow. And to what faculty of the soul does he owe this perception?’

‘*James.*—To his reason.’

In a similar manner are explained in these dialogues, the powers of judgment, memory, imagination, and instinct; the passions and affections; and the doctrine of the soul’s immortality.

The author’s plan appears ingenious, but promises more than perhaps it is able to perform. Researches into the nature and operations of mind are certainly among the last labours of philosophy, and lie far

far beyond the reach of children. All that can be done by such methods as are here proposed is, to explain to children the meaning of certain abstract terms which must be brought into use long before they can study metaphysics. And perhaps they will learn this with better effect, and with less hazard of mistake, by attending to the casual use and application of these terms in conversation and reading, than from any formal attempt to define and illustrate them. The rage for early instruction is certainly carried too far, when the nursery is converted into a hot-bed for philosophy, and boys and girls are made metaphysicians.

ART. XLVIII. *Letters and Conversations between several Young Ladies on interesting and improving Subjects.* Translated from the Dutch of Madame de Cambon, with Alterations and Improvements. 12mo. 414 pages. Price 3s. sewed. Dilly. 1792.

MADAME de Cambon wrote, in Dutch, two useful books under the titles of the *Young Grandison*, and the *Young Clarissa*, which, however, had no very intimate connexion with Richardson's histories of Sir Charles Grandison and Clarissa Harlowe, but were intended to convey to young minds, in the pleasing form of dialogue, instruction chiefly of the moral kind. The former of these works has been already translated, with considerable alterations\*, and the latter is now given under a title which entirely detaches the work from the English *Clarissa*, and with some slight variations from the original.

These letters and conversations, which are written in an easy unaffected style, are adapted not so much to communicate useful information to the understanding, as to fix good impressions upon the heart; and this purpose they are well adapted to answer. The conversations are sufficiently connected by incidents to fix the attention; yet the narration is not suffered to come forward as the principal object; it is only made use of as the vehicle to introduce moral sentiments and precepts. The book might very properly be introduced as a work of entertainment among young ladies at boarding-schools, as, without the least hazard of teaching them any thing improper, it might serve to correct some of the false notions which too frequently find their way into such seminaries.

ART. XLIX. *The Female Mentor, or select Conversations.* In two Volumes. 12mo. Price 6s. sewed. Cadell. 1793.

MISCELLANEOUS entertainment and instruction are here presented to the public under a new form. A select company of friends are supposed to meet once a fortnight, and each to bring something towards the common stock of information or amusement; for example, some biographical anecdotes, some historical relations, an essay on some subject, or a copy of verses. Under the notion of a selection from these contributions, we find in these volumes;—the character of Servin, from Sully's Memoirs; a sketch of the life of Fenelon; reflections on anger; an account of the oracle of Delphos, from the travels of the younger Anacharsis; a tale of an old man and his dog,

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\* Anal. Rev. Vol. VIII. p. 463.

from Marmontel; instances of benevolence, with an essay on the same subject; remarks on novels; sketches of the characters of celebrated queen consorts of England; observations on learned ladies; Fenelon's maxims of female education; the history of Margaret of Anjou; an account of the lake of Zirnitz, in Carniola; strictures on the character of Imogen; life of the countess of Hainault; character of madame de Sevigné, drawn up by madame de la Fayette; essay on modesty; remarks on the study of nature, from Stillingfleet on the Economy of Nature; a letter on dancing; an essay on contentment; on music; a letter on marriage; and observations on dissipation.

These pieces, which are selected with judgment, and, as far as they are original, are drawn up with classical neatness, may afford such young ladies as have a turn for reflection an improving as well as agreeable amusement for a leisure hour.

ART. I. *The Fugitive of Folly; intended as a representative Sketch of the Progress of Error, from Youth to Manhood; in a Miniature of modern Manners, with Hints for the Regulation of the Police, &c. &c.* By Thomas Thoughtless, junior, Esquire. 12mo. 152 pages. Price 2s. 6d. sewed. Adams. 1793.

THIS piece is not adapted to gratify the modern rage for anecdote and scandal; but it may answer a much better purpose. It contains an account of the hazards which young men who give themselves up to dissipation run, from the base tribe of money lenders, who are ever watching an opportunity to precipitate the ruin of inexperienced and thoughtless youth, under the pretence of supplying their necessities. The arts of these pests of society are faithfully delineated, and the ruin almost necessarily attending a life of dissipation and extravagance is feelingly represented, by one who appears to have himself passed through the several stages of error and wretchedness, and to have been the *fugitive of folly* which he describes. The piece is evidently written in haste, and under the strong impulse of distress.

ART. LI. *Mental Improvement for a Young Lady, on her Entrance into the World; addressed to a favourite Niece.* 12mo. 132 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Lane. 1793.

IN the form of letters, some familiar advice is here given to young women on the prudential and moral topics of good temper, conduct and conversation, forbearance, chastity, truth, employment of time, amusements, and religion; but the hints are too slight and superficial, and the language in which they are expressed too inelegant, to give the piece a right to be ranked in the higher order of elegant and useful productions for the benefit of young females. O. S.



## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

## HISTORY OF ACADEMIES.

## ART. I. ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AT GOTTINGEN.

The author of the memoir, to which the prize was awarded on the 24th of november last [see our Rev. Vol. xv. p. 108], appears to be Mr. Mannert, teacher of the school at Nuremberg.

ART. II. Berlin. *Beobachtungen und Entdeckungen aus der Naturkunde, &c.* Observations and Discoveries in Natural Philosophy : by the Physical Society of Berlin. Vol. IV. Parts III. IV. 632 p. 3 plates ; one of them coloured. 1791

The pieces contained in Vol. IV. P. III. of this publication, to which we have been indebted for many excellent papers, are 1. Description of a new species of water tortoise, with remarks on some little known foreign species : by prof. J. G. Schneider. 2. New observations on the Siberian topaz and beryl : by U. F. B. Brückmann. 3. On the red lead spar of Siberia : by J. B. Bindheim. 4. Brief information respecting the ponderous stone of Pengilly in Cornwall : by Mr. Klaproth. 5. Observations of Saturn in 1789, 90 : by Mr. Schröter. 6. Remarks on the serpentine mountain in lower Silesia : by Mr. Karsten. 7. Remarks on the variation needle : by Mr. von Hahn. 8. Remarkable observations on deer : by count Mellin. The count sawed off the horns of a stag just above the pearls, immediately after he had polished. The stag went to rut, but the hind did not conceive. He performed the experiment three years following, with similar consequences. The fourth he left the horns, and the hind had a young one. The count gives some reasons why the sawing off the horns has not always the same effect. 9. Addition to the history of hermaphrodites : by Mr. Scriba. The subject was a sheep.

In part IV. we find first the plans and rules of the society as improved July 26, 1791, with a list of the members : then the following essays. 1. Mineralogical and chemical observations on some Siberian lead ores : by J. J. Bindheim. The experiments relate to a brown lead ochre, a white lead spar, a gray diaphanous lead spar, and a vitriolated lead. 2. Oryctognostic sketches of the history of tin : by Mr. Karsten. 3. Description of a conductor, that at the same time answers the purpose of an electroscope : by Dr. J. P. Pelisson. 4. Extract of a letter from Mr. Prevost to Dr. Pelisson, containing Montgolfier's opinion on the rain-wind, so called because it seems to depend on the water falling from the clouds. 5. On the place of the diamond in the mineral system : by prof. Lew. Rousseau. 6. On the rotation of Venus, and two variable spots in the moon : by Mr. Schröter. 7. Description of two new fishes : by Dr. Bloch.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

## MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE.

ART. III. Tübingen. *Einige Fälle aus der gerichtlichen Arzneykunde, &c.* Some Cases in medical Jurisprudence: by Dr. Eman. Gottlieb Elvert. 8vo. 164 p. 1792.

The difficulties in the science of medical jurisprudence are not few, and to contribute to their removal is rendering an essential service to mankind. Of late much has been written on the subject, and this must be added to the number of useful publications on it. The cases it contains are 1. A child murdered. 2. Another found dead. 3. A drunken woman beaten to death by her drunken husband. 4. A case of impotence. 5. A woman supposed to be bewitched. 6. A madman selfaccused of bestiality. 7. An account of an epidemic fever.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ART. IV. Königsberg. *Materialien für die Staatsarzneykunde und Jurisprudenz, &c.* Materials for Medical Polity and Jurisprudence. 8vo. 173 p. 1792.

Dr. Metzger, already well known for his publications on forensic medicine, is the author of this valuable collection, which contains five cases, that came before different courts. A supposed murder: a supposed child-murder: a remarkable child-murder: a poisoning with white vitriol: and another with arsenic. To these are added remarks on the passages of a sketch of a new code of laws that relate to medical polity.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

## P H Y S I O L O G Y.

ART. V. *Lettre de M. Valli, &c.* Letter from Mr. Valli, on animal Electricity. *Journal de Physique.*

The following are the results of some new experiments. 1. To excite shocks in frogs just killed one single metallic conductor is sufficient. It is not necessary to coat either the muscle or the nerve. I employ scissors made of a bad kind of steel with success. Gold, silver, lead, copper, tin, in general produce no effect. 2. The animal electricity passes through glass or sealing wax, if those substances be filled with the matter of heat (*feu*). 3. Water too much heated, or in a state of ebullition, disperses the electricity so as to destroy its phenomena. 4. Excess of cold deprives water of the property of conducting the fluid in question. 5. The prepared paws of dogs, cats, or rabbits, remain immovable when I make part of the chain. 6. Having plunged the diaphragm of a dog into a vessel of water, in such a manner that the phrenic nerve, previously coated, reached to the outside of the vessel, I was able to excite weak contractions in the muscle, by touching the coating with a shilling or a guinea, and applying a finger of the other hand to the surface of the water. 7. A metallic wire covered with sealing-wax throughout its whole length ceases to be an exciter when the vitality of my frogs begins to fail: which proves, if I be not mistaken, that electricity passes on the surface of conductors. 8. Tying the nerves near the muscle prevents the animal electricity from continuing its course. The ligature opposes the same obstacles to artificial electricity. 9. If a known quantity of electric fluid be determined

determined to the crural nerves of a frog, one of which has a ligature at some distance from the muscle, and the other remains in its natural state, the movements will be more evident in the leg of this side than in that of the other. 10. When the artificial electricity is extremely weak, it excites the irritability of the muscles of that leg only of which the nerve is at liberty. Yet I can obtain movements in the other leg, by putting its own electricity in circulation. This experiment perhaps furnishes us with a criterion for estimating the power of the animal electricity. For example, if 5, 6, or 7 degrees of artificial electricity be insufficient to produce movements, yet they can be excited by the natural electricity, we may say this is stronger than the given quantity of 5, 6, or 7 degrees. 11. The excitement produced in the limbs of animals by the known method, instead of destroying their irritability, maintains it. An experiment will make me more clearly understood. I prepare one wing of a fowl, or one paw of a dog, or cat, and make the usual experiment. Half an hour afterwards I coat the other wing, or another paw, and have recourse to my exciter: but this wing, or this paw, will give no sign of electricity, though the parts before subjected to the experiment still continue to tremble and move.

## C H E M I S T R Y.

ART. VI. *Hameln.* Prof. Hermstadt having opposed and contradicted different opinions and assertions of Mr. Westrumb, the latter gentleman informs us, that he delays answering the prof. only till he has made some new experiments, and repeated others necessary for the purpose. In the mean time he maintains: '1st, that quicksilver completely calcined, and freed from *hygroscopic* water by incandescence, yields no dephlogisticated air when it is reduced: but, 2dly, that incompletely calcined; or, 3dly, completely calcined, but not freed from hygroscopic water by incandescence; or, 4thly, heated red hot, but badly kept; or exposed to the air; or moistened with water; it yields water and air.'

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

## NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

ART. VII. *Lettre de M. de Luc, &c.* Letter from Mr. de Luc, on Gravity. *Journal de Physique.*

Mr. de L. begins with observing, that, although terrestrial may be distinguished from general physics to a certain point, considering the latter as furnishing the former with a small number of laws, attested by constant experience, and admitted by all philosophers, such is the concatenation of causes in nature, that they cannot be distinguished with marked precision, and we know not where to place the boundary to prevent physical theories from losing more or less of their certainty, copiousness, nay and of their evidence, though at bottom they are true. The laws of gravity and cohesion are sufficiently established to be admitted in terrestrial physics in their common signification, without occasioning doubts, and even without risk of error, if strictly observed. Chemical affinities, considered as general phenomena, also appear to require only a particular determination of their laws in detail, as successively furnished by experience: though these laws are already so complex, that it would be useful for us to be



enlightened by their causes, to prevent our falling into mistake. When, however, we come to expansible fluids, their modifications, and the different actions they exert, phenomena which must be intimately connected with general causes in nature, we are astonished not yet to find a precise definition of these fluids, or determination of their general laws, established as a common code amongst philosophers. This, affecting precisely that class of substances about which philosophers are at present chiefly engaged, is one principal cause of their disagreement, and a grand obstacle to the progress of true knowledge. At the time when air and fire were considered as elements, and elasticity like that of a spring was attributed to them, the science of terrestrial physics was so vague and confined, that this idea of elasticity was on a par with most other common opinions concerning nature; and philosophers employed the expression, till a more intimate acquaintance with facts should give them ideas more clear. Experience and observation have since that period made as much progress as might have been expected: but natural philosophy, that science of which it is the province to account for the phenomena of nature, has not advanced with equal step. At present expansible fluids occupy the attention of all, yet the vague idea of elasticity is retained as a character of their class, whence many phenomena that proceed immediately from the nature of these fluids are assigned to other causes, which throws in the way of our researches much obscurity. A precise definition of the nature of expansible fluids is one of the objects which ought at present most strongly to engage the attention of philosophers, as a mean of preserving them from mistake concerning causes whilst they advance in the discovery of facts.

From this, after calling to the remembrance of the reader his Researches concerning the Modifications of the Atmosphere, introductory to his mentioning Mr. le Sage, as a philosopher to whom he was indebted for his ideas concerning the cause of gravity, Mr. de L. proceeds to develop the system of that gentleman: a system on which Mr. le S. has employed his attention near fifty years, but which, embracing a vast field of experiment and calculation, his health has not yet permitted him to lay before the public, desirous as he was, that it should not appear till he could establish it on immoveable foundations. At an early age, Mr. le S. was struck with the consideration, that, wherever the causes of motion or of tendency to motion are immediately known to us, we perceive actual impulse. From this foundation he has constructed his theory. His fundamental hypothesis is: 'corpuscles excessively small move in a right line, in every direction, with extreme rapidity.' The rest of his system consists only in geometrical determinations. He determines, for instance, the magnitude of these corpuscles, comparatively with the smallest pores of bodies; their velocity, compared with that of light for example; the distance of those which succeed in the same lines, compared with the diameter of the earth; the distance of their parallel files, compared with the magnitude of the atoms that compose sensible substances: and all these determinations are deduced from phenomena. Proceeding, by analysis and analogy, from phenomena in which the agents are best known, to phenomena of the same kind the agents in which recede farther and farther from our observation, Mr. le S. has extended the idea of mechanical causes to the most general phenomena:

mena : and thus he has reduced all the science of natural philosophy to that sole truly simple and intelligible principle of mechanics, the inertia of impenetrable extension (*étendue*).

I come now, says Mr. de L., to such part of this system as I can exhibit with the least difficulty, in order to bring it to that point where it connects with my own researches in experimental philosophy.

The corpuscles abovementioned moving all ways, it is evident, that every sensible point of that portion of space which we call the universe is traversed in every direction, at every sensible instant of time : so that these points may be considered as centres, at which corpuscles arrive from all sides, as particles of light arrive at them from all the stars. Now in the system of Mr. le S. these corpuscles in motion produce, mediately or immediately, all the physical phenomena of the universe. To begin with the greatest immediate effect of this mechanical cause, gravity, let us suppose, that, beside these corpuscles, there exists in all space but one sole atom belonging to sensible substances. This atom, occupying one of those sensible points, at which corpuscles arrive from every side, will be struck by them on every part, and of course will remain sensibly immoveable. Now if a second atom should come afterwards to exist at a sensible proximity to the other, it is evident, that each of these will protect the other from the shocks of those corpuscles which strike it on the outer surface. The atoms, therefore, will receive fewer shocks on the surfaces they present to each other, and consequently they will be impelled toward each other by the sum of the exterior shocks which are not compensated by interior ones. Thus already the idea of attraction vanishes before an idea simply mechanical. It has been discovered, that the velocity with which bodies move toward each other increases in an inverse ratio of the squares of their distances ; and this law will be found perfectly conformable to the proportion of corpuscles intercepted at different distances in the system of Mr. le S. The second law of gravity, that bodies attract each other in the ratio of their mass, appears at first sight incompatible with the system of Mr. le S. : but on a closer examination it will be found otherwise. If a second atom be placed by the side of one of the former, the single one will keep off from this as many corpuscles as it did from the other ; whence they will both move towards it with the same force as the first atom did. But this atom will keep off as many corpuscles from the single one as its fellow does ; whence the single atom will move, in a line intermediate to one drawn from its centre to the centre of each, with double the force it had before. This force will incontestibly be increased exactly in proportion to the number of atoms placed side by side. It will seem a specious objection, no doubt, that in any given mass many of its component atoms will be in one line, and consequently on this system can act but as one. Yet this objection will vanish, if we allow the porosity of bodies to be such, as Mr. le S. has demonstrated it may be, that in a globe as large as the sun the atoms placed about its centre are struck by these corpuscles sensibly as much as those on its surface ; so that the quantity of corpuscles stopped in these vast bodies (whence their gravitation towards each other arises) may bear so small a proportion to that of the corpuscles which traverse it, that the same quantity arrives sensibly

sibly to each of its component atoms, wherever situated; and thus gravity may be so nearly in the ratio of masses, that astronomy has not yet been able to discover a want of accuracy certainly attributable to a defect of this law. This part of the system of Mr. le S. supposes, it is true, degrees of littleness and velocity of the corpuscles and of the porosity of bodies, with such an extent of space, as startle the imagination: but our ideas of magnitude, of velocity, and of time, have nothing absolute; and as to space, far from being able to assign its limits, we conceive the whole universe, as far as we have any knowledge of it, however immense it appear to our imagination, is but a single point in it.

## M E T E O R O L O G Y.

ART. VIII. *Lettre de M. Piçet, &c.* Letter from Mr. Piçet, Professor of Philosophy at Geneva, and Member of the Royal Society of London. *Journal de Physique.*

Fath. Cotte, in determining the mean temperature of the climate of Paris [see our Rev. p. 117 of this vol.], had taken the means of three observations each day, as the true temperature. This method, which seems pretty generally followed, appears to prof. P. to be erroneous. Considering the true mean as that of an infinite number of observations at regular intervals, he has several times made ninety-six observations within the twenty-four hours, and has uniformly found their mean to coincide with the temperature at eight o'clock in the morning, in seasons so opposite as the months of may and august. The mean of the two extreme degrees of temperature has always exceeded this; and that of sunset, sunrise, and the greatest heat, exceeded it rather more: in summer these came nearest to the truth, in spring they varied from it upwards of two degrees. Mr. P. thinks it advisable, therefore, to take the temperature of eight in the morning, as the mean temperature of the day.

## N A T U R A L H I S T O R Y.

ART. IX. *Extrait d'une Lettre, &c.* Extract of a Letter from Mr. Mascagni to Mr. des Genettes. *Journal de Physique.*

I hope soon to bring out the second part of my commentaries on the marshes (*lagoni*) in the neighbourhood of Sienna and Volterra. You will find in it a great number of experiments on the native sedative salt of Tuscany, on an ammoniacal salt found in those marshes, and differing from what is met with at Solfatara and Vesuvius, and on the modifications undergone by the different kinds of earths and stones exposed to the vapours that arise from those marshes. From these will appear the manner in which are formed those numerous alum mines scattered over so many parts of Italy.

On a recent examination of the saline concretes of sedative salt, I have found a borax with a base of calcareous earth, and another with a base of volatile alkali.

ART. X. *Examen & Analyse, &c.* Examination and Analysis of the native Coak or Cinder of St. Symphorien de-Laye, in the District of Roanne, Department of the Rhône and Loire: by Mr. Sage.

The



The native coak of St. Symphorien, which is taken from a vein eight feet thick, differs not in appearance from the most bituminous coal: it is black, shining, and not heavy; but it breaks into rhomboids, which indicates its being earthy, as it appears to be on burning, for it leaves a third part ( $\frac{35}{100}$ ) of grayish schistous ashes. It yields neither bitumen, volatile alkali, nor acid. In the hydro-pneumatic apparatus it gives out first a very pure, limpid, and inodorous water, in the proportion of four pounds in the hundred, and afterwards inflammable air. In some fragments of it lamellæ of martial pyrites, of a shining yellow colour, were found.

## M A T H E M A T I C S.

ART. XI. Berlin. *Vermischte Aufsätze für Liebhaber mathematischer Wissenschaften*, &c. Miscellaneous Essays for Lovers of the Mathematical Sciences: by G. U. A. Vieth. Vol. 1. 8vo. 166 p. 1 plate. 1792.

In the first essay in this volume Mr. V. gives a new explanation of a well known optical phenomenon, the appearance of rays of light issuing from a luminous body beheld with half-shut eyes. He accounts for it from the lamellated structure of the crystalline humour; having found, that a lens, in a room filled with much vapour, as a ball-room, wiped with the hand, the surface of which is not perfectly even, will produce a similar effect. If the lens be wiped on both sides, in opposite directions, the effect does not take place. A similar appearance is produced in a camera obscura, by smearing the convex glass with fat. The second essay is on chances with dice. In this Mr. V. gives a method of finding exactly how many similar throws there are on two, three, or more dice, as far as eight. The third is on artificial mixtures of colours. The last, which Mr. V. calls the magic constellation, is an answer to the following problem. To place in the circumference of a circle a number of figures in arithmetical progression, so that the sum of any following two shall be equal to that of the opposite two. Mr. V. extends it also to numbers in geometrical progression.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

## A S T R O N O M Y.

ART. XII. Paris. *Mr. Mechain's Connoissance des Temps* for 1793 contains much new and valuable matter. We shall take notice of one important article, a table of the declinations and proper motions of the principal stars. The right ascensions of thirty-four by prof. Maskelyne, given in Wollaston's catalogue, are remarkable for their precision; and it was desirable to have their declinations observed and calculated with the same accuracy. This, however, must be a difficult task from the uncertainty of the refractions, and the errors in almost all instruments. The observations begun at the royal observatory in the year 1790 with whole circles will probably remedy the latter; but, as these observations are long and difficult, the stars determined in this manner are few. In the mean time Mr. de la Lande gives the declinations of the thirty-four stars abovementioned, as determined by his mural quadrant at the military school, and compared with those of Bradley's catalogue, to get the total change of declination

nation for every year to 1790, and consequently the proper and particular movement of each. The most considerable of these movements are those of Arcturus  $2''05$  yearly, of Sirius  $1''27$ , of Procyon  $1''22$  of the Goat  $0''55$ , of the Lyre  $0''48$ , of the Eagle  $0''63$ , of Andromeda  $0''75$ , of Pegasus and of the Whale  $0''51$ . These show how little astronomers can reckon on the position of stars observed thirty or forty years ago, till their changes are known. Mr. de la L. has compared his declinations with those of Flamsteed for 1690 also, and has thence deduced the proper movements which he has marked in a particular column. For some stars these differ considerably from those which Bradley's observations give. Messrs. Barry and Henry having sent Mr. de la L. several altitudes of stars observed at Mannheim with a mural similar to his own, he has calculated several for each of the thirty-four stars. Frequently the difference between the observations of Paris and Mannheim was insensible; sometimes Mr. de la L. took the mean of the two: in the latter case there is a small degree of uncertainty, which he hopes to remove by future observations. Fomalhaut not having yet been observed with the whole circle, Mr. de la L. thought at first of procuring a verification by the observations of Mr. Piazzini, made at Palermo with a circle of five feet, and of Mr. Oriani, made at Milan with a mural of Ramsden's, as large as his own, and verified for the whole arc: but he found  $11''$  more at Palermo than at Milan, and  $5''$  at Milan more than at Paris, though he reckoned the change of refraction: this showed him, that the refraction at the same heights of the barometer and thermometer is still less at Palermo, which agrees with the account sent him by Mr. Cagnoli, who found the refraction at Verona, in lat.  $45^\circ$ , one twenty-fifth less than at Paris. Thus to refer the observations made in one country to another, it is necessary to ascertain the refraction in each: an important observation, which rectifies the ideas held on that subject since Mayer and la Caille.

*Mr. de la Lande. Journal des Sçavans.*

ART. XIII. *Berlin.* Mr. Bode's Astronomical Ephemeris for 1795 contains many valuable observations and calculations as usual. We shall only notice the following. On the obliquity of the mirror in a reflecting telescope. It ought to be  $1^\circ 15'$ , according to Mr. Schroeter.—A method of finding the altitude of the pole with an instrument erroneously divided, and detecting the errors of the instrument: by Mr. Beidler.—On Ramsden's new dynameter, for measuring the magnifying power of a telescope.—On the sun and its light: by land-marshal von Hahn. According to the hypothesis of Mr. von H. the sun is a dark body, possessing a power of separating light from the universe by chemical affinity.

Mr. B. promises us a general index to his Ephemeris, of which this is the twentieth volume.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

## GEOGRAPHY.

ART. XIV. Paris. *Histoire abrégée de la Mer du Sud, &c.* A concise History of the South Sea, embellished with several Charts; by Mr. de la Borde. 3 vols. 8vo. about 450 p. each.

In composing this work Mr. de la B. had two objects in view: to collect together into a small compass every thing necessary to be known respecting the South Sea, that the student in geography, and more particularly the young mariner, might not have to wade in search of it through a number of large and expensive volumes; and to serve as an explanation of a chart of the Pacific Ocean, on which the author has been ten years employed. It was the intention of Mr. de la B. not to publish it till he could enrich it with the discoveries of Mr. de la Peyrouse: but the hope of this gentleman's return being now extremely small, though our author is firmly persuaded, that he is still living in some part of the southern hemisphere, he determined to give us his chart, the most complete and accurate we have seen, in its present state; and this work necessarily accompanies it.

Mr. de la B. examines, in his preface, the manner in which America may have been peopled from the old world; and here he admits the existence of the Atlantis. In an introduction he briefly notices some ancient geographical discoveries, with the three voyages of Columbus, and others, that preceded the discovery of the South Sea. The first European who beheld this ocean was Balboa, in 1513; the first who entered it was Magellan, in 1520. The voyages of other navigators are then related, with all their real and pretended discoveries. In the latter class he places the voyage of de Fonté, who asserts, that in 1740 he entered, from the South Sea, a lake to the north of Hudson's Bay, in which he met a vessel from Boston.

Mr. de la B. begins his second volume with some observations, which seem to prove, that our continent was peopled from America, and that the South Sea occupies the place of what was once a continent. In this volume he gives us also a memoir of Mr. de la Bastide, on the possibility, advantages, and means of opening a communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, through the lake of Nicaragua; which he strongly recommends to the Spaniards, as the only method of preventing their trade to the South Sea from dwindling into nothing, in consequence of the vast benefits that will mediate accrue to the English from their establishment at Nootka.

In the third volume Mr. de la B. gives us Cook's third voyage, with nine others, which reach down to that of lieut. Riou. A table of thirty pages, containing the latitudes and longitudes that served for the construction of the charts, with the authorities on which they were taken, conclude this instructive and entertaining work. The charts are on large paper, and engraved in a superior style.

Mr. de la Lande. *Journ. des Sçavans.*

## MECHANICS.

ART. XV. *Moyen de procurer aux Chevaux des Machines à Mollettes, &c.* Means of procuring Mill-Horses a Draught perpendicular to the Lever at the End of which they act: by Mr. Baillet de Belloy.

*Journal de Physique.*



In machines worked by means of a horse harnessed to one end of a lever moving in a circle, it is well known, that a portion of the horse's power is lost by his not acting at right angles with the lever: this is so considerable in a small circle, as Dr. Defaguliers has shown, that a horse, which in a circle of forty feet diameter could move as much as five men pushing the lever, could not move as much as three of them in a circle of nineteen feet. To obviate this great inconvenience, Mr. de B. proposes, that the lever should pass over the horse's back, and that the traces should be fastened to two pieces of wood passing down perpendicularly from the lever, one on each side of the horse. The traces ought to be of such a length that the perpendicular pieces might be opposite the centre of the horse's body; and they should be fastened so high, as to be in a horizontal line when the horse is in motion. In machines where it is necessary to change the horse's direction occasionally, instead of the two perpendicular pieces might be substituted a semicircular iron, fastened to the lever by a swivel.

#### HISTORY OF PHILOSOPHY, ARTS, SCIENCES, &c.

ART. XVI. *Observations sur la Physique, &c.* Vol. XLII. 1793.

Though all Europe, observes Mr. Delam  therie in his preliminary discourse, has been agitated with political movements of the highest importance, in which the learned could not avoid taking a part as citizens, the last year is not to be numbered amongst the most barren with respect to science. The human mind pursues with a bold and rapid pace the career it has opened itself. One valuable discovery leads to another still more interesting. Some collect facts: others attempt to connect these facts by general views. But frequently a system stands but for a moment to be overturned by another system, or from its inherent defects it falls with the lapse of time: facts however remain: facts are the bases of all true and solid knowledge.

In *Astronomy* we have to record the comet discovered by miss Herschel the latter end of last year, which continued visible till the 28th of January. It is the fifth that lady has discovered; and is the eighth of which the orbit has been calculated. Mr. Herschel has found that the ring of Saturn is double. Mr. Schroeter has made many important observations on the moon. The Parisian astronomers have laboured with ardour on the grand work of an universal standard. The third edition of Mr. de la Lande's astronomy, published last year, is augmented with new tables for the motions of all the planets calculated either by himself, or by Mr. de Lambre; and tables of the satellites of Jupiter, on which Mr. de Lambre was employed nearly two years, and in which he was greatly assisted by the learned theory of the reciprocal attractions of those satellites, carried much farther by Mr. de la Place, than by any one who has gone before him. The tables of Jupiter, of Saturn, and of the planet Herschel, also calculated by Mr. de Lambre, and in which too he was considerably assisted by Mr. de la Place, are to be reckoned as other great additions to the progress of astronomy. Few could have suspected three years ago, that the great inequalities of Saturn could be at this time so well known, or that the orbit of Herschel would be determined with as much precision as those of planets observed for two thousand years. Mr. Zach has accurately determined the right ascensions of four hundred

dred principal stars : Mr. de Lambré has done the same for the southern stars : and Mr. de la Lande has observed ten thousand stars of the northern hemisphere with a mural of seven feet and half. The most singular circumstance in this series of observations is the number wanting of the catalogues of Flamsteed and Hevelius made a century ago. Mr. de la Lande already reckons sixty which are not in their place. Is it the fault of the calculations of the former observers ? or have the stars disappeared ?

*Zoology.* If ever ' the proper study of mankind be man', it must be particularly interesting at a time of revolution, when the general shock has given such a violent concussion to every mind. The sage cannot avoid inquiring : who am I ? what place do I occupy in the scale of being ? whither do I tend ? what will be the end of such agitations, such passions, such crimes ? It belongs to the philosophical naturalist to answer these questions, to consider man physically, with respect to his organization and intellectual qualities ; morally ; politically ; and finally, with regard to the termination of his life. On the external form of man Mr. Camper has given us an excellent treatise, comparing the physiognomies of different races, and contrasting them with those of various animals. Mr. Lavater has more particularly considered the physiognomy of man. In *anatomy* some advances have been made. Mr. Laumonier has just discovered a new ganglion placed in the cavernous sinus, establishing communications between different nerves of the basis of the cranium. Mr. Mascagni had demonstrated the existence of lymphatics in every part of the human body : but on those of the brain some doubts had been started. These Mr. Schreger has lately removed. He has injected the lymphatics of the plexus choroides and of the corpus striatum in the brain of an ox. With respect, however, to the manner in which the lymph arrives at those vessels, and the moving power which occasions its circulation in them, we are yet ignorant. Mr. des Genettes has made some researches on this head. He has shown, that absorption continues to go on a long time after death ; and insists strongly on taking the cellular membrane into the absorbent system. The most interesting question at present agitated concerns the brain, the nerves, and the manner in which they act to produce irritability, sensibility, motion, and life. The experiments of Mr. Galvani, pursued by Mr. Volta, Mr. Berlinghieri, and more especially by Mr. Valli, may probably throw some light on the subject.

In the science of *zoology* we have also to notice a new species of quadruped brought to England. It is a bradypus, or sloth, of a large size, and in certain respects resembling the bear.

*Botany.* Mr. van Marum has made some experiments which tend to prove, that the circulation of fluids in plants is owing to their being possessed of irritability. Mr. Sennebier has inquired into the temperature of vegetables. He is of opinion, that they have no heat proper to them ; but that those which have deep roots may by their means derive some heat in winter from the earth, which gave rise to the supposition, that it was inherent in them. From Mr. Desfontaines we shall soon receive information of the new plants he has brought from Africa.

*Mineralogy.* Mr. Dolomieu's learned inquiries concerning compound stones and rocks here claim our attention. The same gentleman has

has described a kind of calcareous stone of the primitive mountains, which effervesces very slowly with acids, and is phosphoric on collision. Mr. Gillet-Laumont has shown, that there is a great number of phosphorescent and slowly effervescing calcareous stones in the secondary mountains also. Mr. Fleuriau de Bellevue has given us an excellent memoir on pliant stones. Mr. Martinowich has found the acid of borax in bituminous waters. Mr. Schreiber has discovered native iron in the department of the Isère: and in granite mountains he has observed a new species of zeolite, yellowish, generally opaque, though sometimes transparent: it is crystallised in a tetraedral prism, terminated by a pyramid, which is either tetraedral, or diedral, truncated at the summit. Masses of zeolite of one or two hundred weight have been found in granite in Moravia also. Zeolite, then, here found in granite, there with ores of silver and lead, as in the Hartz, must not be considered as a volcanic product. Mr. Andrada has given us a history of the diamonds of Brasil. They, as well as those of the East Indies, are found in a kind of ferruginous earth. Mr. Sage has spoken of rock crystal containing petroleum, and Mr. Targioni has two similar pieces found near Modena. Mr. Armet has found magnesia at Montmartre. Mr. van Berchem has given an account of the *honigstein*, or honey-stone, of Werner, which ought to be classed with amber.

In *natural philosophy* the observations of Mr. Cassini on the declination and variation of the magnetic needle must be noticed; as well as those of fath. Cotte on the same subject, and on the extent of the march of the barometer in different latitudes, and his meteorological observations. Messrs. Mauduyt and Chappe have made some experiments tending to show that electricity does not favour the development of animals. Mr. Chappe has investigated the reason why points receive and emit the electric fluid at considerable distances; and he accounts for it from the slight pressure of the air on them.

*Chemistry* still continues to be pursued with ardour, and many beautiful experiments have been made in that science. Mr. Tennant, persuaded that fixed air is composed of pure air and coal, as Mr. Lavoisier has advanced, endeavoured to obtain from it those two principles, and succeeded. Dr. Pearson has repeated the same attempt in different ways, with equal success. Mr. Sennebier has made several experiments to prove, that fixed air is decomposed in the act of vegetation. Mr. Dolomieu, having mixed very pure quartz with pure caustic alkali, obtained from it inflammable and phlogisticated airs, and the quartzose earth appeared in a peculiar state, being soluble in the acids, and having several properties different from those of quartzose earth in its usual state. In this state he supposes it to exist in gems, and to be that peculiar earth to which Bergmann gave the appellation of *noble*. The tabasheer, found between the knots of the bamboo, appears, according to the analysis of Mr. Macie, to contain quartzose earth. All the other earths, several metals, the mineral acids and alkali, volatile alkali and sulphur, have been found in vegetables; as well as the alkali called vegetable, and various peculiar acids. Are all these substances the produce of vegetation? For my part, says Mr. Delametherie, I have no doubt of it. In animals, too, the quartzose and calcareous earths have been found: whether they contain the other earths or not, has never been examined. Iron  
abounds



abounds in them. Do they, as well as vegetables, contain gold and manganese? It is probable they do: for, if these be not formed in them, they are conveyed into them by means of vegetables. The three alkalis have been perceived in them: and Scheele has demonstrated, that they contain sulphur. The great difference between animal and vegetable substances is in their jellies. Those of vegetables contain several peculiar acids. These vegetable juices, having undergone the process of animalization, pass to the state of animal jelly, of albumen. The acid changes its nature, and is replaced by a new principle, which is not volatile alkali, but contains all its principles; for, either by the action of heat in distillation, or by putrefaction, it changes entirely into volatile alkali. The same difference is found between vegetable and animal oils; the latter affording volatile alkali, the former an acid. To return from this digression, Mr. Margueron has analysed the synovia, the serum of the blood, and the serosity of blisters. Messrs. Deiman, Paets van Troostwick, Nieuwland, and Bondt, have investigated the properties of livers of sulphur with great assiduity. Mr. Pelletier has made many interesting observations on the nature of muriatic acid of tin; and has continued his experiments on the combinations of phosphorus with metallic substances. Mr. Vauquelin has found the acid of benjamin crystallised in cinnamon water. Mr. Raymond has perceived, that pyrophorus burns very well in nitrous air: but he is mistaken in advancing, that all chemists have denied that air the property of being able to maintain combustion; for, in the first vol. of my *Essai sur l'Air*, &c., I have noticed the same thing. Dr. Crawford has procured from the matter of cancer a species of air which appears to him to be new. Dr. Priestley has pursued his examination of the combustion of dephlogisticated and inflammable airs, from which, though the airs were extremely pure, he has always obtained nitrous acid: hence he must persist in doubting their being the constituent principles of water. The grand question of phlogiston has been treated by several German chemists, who do not consider the objections made to its existence as conclusive. The Germans, the Swedes, have not given up the theory of Stahl, modified so as to accord with late experiments: and the partisans of the new theory have been obliged to admit, that combustible bodies, such as inflammable air, contribute as much as the pure air to flame, heat, and light. Perhaps, when little bickerings and the contests of self-love have given place to more pacific sentiments, we shall all be of one accord. The decomposition of water is a problem still remaining to be resolved. Is water produced from the combustion of pure and inflammable airs? or was it previously contained in them? This, whatever may be said, is not yet decided. When I asserted, that, in the experiment of the pretended decomposition of water by means of iron, the properties acquired by that metal appeared owing in part to a combination of it with water, the assertion was deemed extravagant: but it is now completely proved, that water can combine with metallic calces: a pretty considerable quantity has been obtained from calamines, and from calces of copper.

*Arts.* Mr. Mongez has compared the proceedings of the Romans in the construction of their public edifices with those of the moderns. He has also inquired into their mode of coining, and imagines that they used dies of bronze, enveloped with mandrils of iron. Mr.

Boulton's

Boulton's application of the steam-engine to the purpose of coinage is the greatest improvement that this art has ever received. Mr. Ramfden has given us a description of a new hydraulic balance: and we hear he has been some time employed on a machine for determining with precision the hardness of bodies. Fath. Beraud has described a new machine for the coral fishery. Dr. Roxburgh has obtained from a species of *nerium* growing in India a very fine indigo.

*Agriculture* has, perhaps, engaged too little attention. The present circumstances ought to press upon the minds of all the necessity of establishing considerable magazines of corn, as resources in times of scarcity. The sugar-maple, from the account given of it by Dr. Rush, particularly claims our notice, as by its means France might easily be furnished with sugar, without being indebted for it to the misery of negroes. As we have made tea a necessary of life, that also should be attempted to be naturalized in France, in some parts of which it would probably succeed. In the Isles of France, the Antilles, at Cayenne, the different spices have multiplied, so that the monopoly of the Dutch must soon cease. We have the breadfruit tree there too. [The successful voyage of capt. Bligh has now given that valuable tree to our West-India islands also.]

## ORIENTAL LITERATURE.

ART. XVII. *Leipfic.* We formerly announced prof. Paulus's *Memorabilien* [See our Rev. Vol. XI. p. 358], and we shall now give the contents of Parts I. and II. which consist of about 200 p. 8vo. each.

In Part I. are 1. An attempt to explain Romans ix. 5: by C. N. Justi. 2. New explanation of the first verse of the first chapter of John. 3. On the divine mind (*νοῦς, λόγος*) from the Platonic philosophy. This is an excellent essay. 4. Supplement to the history of explanation of the scriptures from Ephrem Syrus: by J. F. Gaab. 5. *Desiderata* in Michaelis's edition of Castelli's Syriac Lexicon. 6. Further remarks on 1 Tim. iii. 16. from the *Nen. Repert.*: by prof. P. 7. Corrections and anecdotes from the Arabic history of Elmacinus, particularly from the yet unpublished, though most important, third volume. 8. On climatic differences in faith in founders of religions, with some Arabic anecdotes from Elmacinus's unpublished history of Hakim. Both these articles are by the editor, and the latter is a very valuable one. 9. Some remarks on the religious books of the Druses. 10. The gift of miracles from Ben Syra. An allegory. 11. On the Africa of Geographus Nubienfis: by J. P. Kurzmann. 12. Sketch of the life of Dr. Kennicott.

In Part II. 1. Continuation of Mr. Kurzmann's essay. 2. Journey from Fez to Tafilet by Achmed Ibn Hassan, in 1787. 3. Extract from the Samaritan Chronicle of Abu'l Phatach; by prof. Schnurrer. 4. Fulda on the cosmogony, androgony, and history of man after the flood. 5. Fragments for a pragmatistical biography of Ephrem Syrus: by J. F. Gaab. 6. Scholia on difficult passages in the Bible. 7. On the doctrine of the pharisees concerning the state after death, with a view to some passages in Josephus and the New Testament: by prof. Flatt. 8. The Idyls of Theocritus compared with Solomon's Song: by prof. Staudlin. 9. On the Song of Solomon: by the same.

In

In these two parts we find much that is valuable, and the learned professor deserves our thanks for the manner in which he conducts his work, which we hope will be lasting.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

#### ANCIENT LITERATURE.

ART. XVIII. Leipzig. *Brägar, &c.* [See our Rev. Vol. XII. p. 117]. Vol. II. 8vo. 480 p. 1792.

This miscellany, which we have already noticed, is continued in a manner much to its credit. Mr. Böckh being dead, Mr. Gräter will in future be assisted by Mr. Koch of Berlin, and Mr. Häflein of Nuremberg. The present volume is enriched by the contributions of other gentlemen skilled in ancient northern lore.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

#### HISTORY.

ART. XIX. Vienna. *Danielis Corneides, &c., Commentatio de Religione veterum Hungarorum, &c.* An Essay on the Religion of the ancient Hungarians: by Dan. Corneides, A. A. L. L. and P. M. &c.: to which is added, a Dissertation on the Origin of the Hungarian Nation: by the Editor, Christian Engel, &c. 8vo. 117 p. 1791.

In the first essay Mr. C. maintains, that the ancient Hungarians worshipped only one supreme God, though, like the Persians, their neighbours, they adored the sun as his image, and had neither idols nor temples. In the investigation of the origin of the nation, Mr. E. finds reasons to conclude, that it is Finnish. From a comparison of Constantine Porphyrogenita with Russian and national accounts, he is of opinion, that the ancestors of the Hungarians inhabited in the nomadic state the present government of Catharinenburg, between the Dnieper and the Don, from 881 to 884, when they migrated into the waiwodeshast of Kiow, Bessarabia, and part of Moldavia, where they established a monarchical government. Hence they passed into Great Moravia, and lastly, between 894 and 896, into Pannonia. During this period, the primitive Ugri received an intermixture of Tatarean or Turkish blood.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY.

ART. XX. It is not without regret we have to announce the discontinuance of the *Journal des Sçavans*, the first literary journal established in Europe, having been begun in 1665, and which has enjoyed such a succession of writers of repute as no other can boast. Mr. Delametherie, from whom we have our information, tells us: 'the revolution in France in 1789, by employing every press, occasioned an interruption in the publication of this journal, and, by calling the attention of all the world to other subjects, so diminished the number of subscribers, that it has become necessary to relinquish it. Yet we do not despair but at a period more tranquil the *Journal des Sçavans* will resume its course: in the mean time a part of what would have appeared in it will be found in the *Journal de Physique*.'

Of



Of every thing of importance that appears in this, we shall continue, as usual, our endeavours to give our readers a faithful abstract.

## MISCELLANIES.

ART. XXI. Salzburg. *Goldner Spiegel, &c.* The golden Mirrour : a Present for Females about to go to Service. 8vo. 123 p. price 4 gr. 1791.

This is a valuable addition to popular morality, that deserves to be put into the hands of all servants, as a guide to their conduct, teaching them how to live happily, by a faithful discharge of their duties.

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## DICTIONARIES.

ART. XXII. Lisbon. *Vestigios da Lingua Arabica em Portugal, &c.* Traces of the Arabic Language in Portugal : or an etymological Dictionary of Words and Names, of Arabic Origin, composed by Order of the Royal Academy of Sciences : by J. de Souza. Small 4to. 180 p.

The value of this lexicon is enhanced by the explanation of many words contained in old Portuguese writings, that are not to be found in any other. Prefixed to it is a short introduction, relative to the languages from which the Portuguese is derived.

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

## EDUCATION.

ART. XXIII. Hamburg. *Ermahnungsrede bey Eröffnung der Sonntagschulen, &c.* Exhortatory Discourse on opening the Sunday School for poor Children, in the late Orphan House, on the third Day of Christmas, 1791 : by Joachim Christ. Brucke.

Mr. B. here gives much good advice in a popular style, with the addition of some occasional hymns. [Our readers will, no doubt, learn with pleasure, that the useful plan of Mr. Raikes is likely not to be confined to Britain, but to extend its benefits to the continent.]

*Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

A P P E N D I X  
T O T H E  
F I F T E E N T H V O L U M E  
O F T H E  
ANALYTICAL REVIEW.

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H I S T O R Y.

ART. I. *Les cinque grandes Epoques du Duché de Brabant, &c.* ;  
The five great Epochs of the Duchy of Brabant, from  
the Middle of the seventh Century of the Christian Æra, to  
the present Times, under the Pepins before and after their  
Elevation to the Throne, the Counts of Louvain, and the  
Houses of Burgundy and Austria. Printed in Brabant; the  
Name of the Place not mentioned. 8vo. 218 p. 1793.

THE country, of which this volume contains the history, formerly held a conspicuous rank among the neighbouring states, and is become extremely interesting at the present day, by being the theatre of a war which bids fair, whatever may be its event, to change the face, and give a new turn to the politics of all Europe.

Brabant, one of the most fertile countries in the world, in which we are told it rains at an average 150 days in every year, is bounded on the south by Hainault and Namur; on the east by the territories of Liege, and Austrian and Prussian Guelderland; on the west by Flanders; and on the north by the country which the Dutch term the Generality, because it has been conquered by the seven provinces, since the treaty of union in 1579. Beside twenty-three cities, the principal of which are Brussels, Louvain, Antwerp, Mechlin, Tirlemont, Genappe, &c. we are told that there are no less than 586 towns or villages, so well peopled with inhabitants, that they can furnish 100,000 men, fit to carry arms. The rivers which water Brabant are the Scheldt, the Dyle, the Senne, the Rumpel, the Neethe, and the Molnette. Allowing thirty leagues to a degree, this duchy is here reckoned to be eighty in circuit, twenty-two in length, and twenty in breadth. We are informed in the introduction, that from the time that Julius Cæsar subdued, or in other words rendered miserable the inhabitants of Gaul, of which the Belgic provinces formed a part, until about the year 616 of the christian era, when history makes mention of the birth of two daughters of Pepin the first, called Pepin of Landen, no event occurred worthy of record in the annals of the Brabantines.

*First epoch. Of Brabant, under the Pepins, before they were kings.* After being governed by Pepin of Landen, Grimoald, Ansegise, Pepin D'Heristal, and Charles Martel, Brabant, during the reign of *Pepin le Bref*, who succeeded Childeric III., became united to France.

*Second epoch. Of Brabant, under the descendants of Pepin, kings of France.* The reigns of Charlemagne, Louis le Debonnaire, &c. do not afford any thing interesting.

*Third epoch. Of Brabant, under the counts of Louvain.* Otho happening to die in 1005, without leaving any children behind him, this duchy descended to Lambert I., who had married his sister, and remained under the dominion of the counts of Louvain, until the death of Jane, widow of duke Wenceslas, who appointed duke Anthony of Burgundy, second son of her niece the countess of Flanders, to be her heir.

*Fourth epoch. Of Brabant, under the house of Burgundy.* No sooner had this prince (duke Anthony, of Burgundy) succeeded to the throne, than he demanded troops from the states, on purpose to carry on a war against a power, which he did not condescend to name. 'The order of nobility laughed, and asserted that he was determined to dethrone the devil; yet, nevertheless, they consented to march under his banners. The cities were more stubborn, for they refused to comply. A magistrate of Brussels had even the boldness, one day that the duke besought the people from the balcony of the town-house to accede to his request, to lean over his shoulder, and exclaim, "The cities, being ignorant against whom the war is intended, will not consent:" and accordingly not one of the citizens was permitted to join him.' There cannot be a more convincing proof, that the people of Brabant enjoyed a high degree of freedom at this period.

Duke Anthony was succeeded by John, and John by Philip, an extravagant prince, who squandered the revenues of his duchy in feasts, tournaments, and entertainments of all kinds.

In 1436 *Philip le Bon* sent no less than 30,000 of his subjects to the assistance of Charles VII. against the English. This prince, who was very religious, and yet had a great number of bastards, treated his people with great cruelty.

*Charles le Temeraire*, his successor, a monster of cruelty, who ordered several hundreds of his subjects to be tied two and two and thrown into the Meuse, died in battle on the 5th of January, 1477, leaving his dominions to Mary of Burgundy, his only daughter.

*Fifth epoch. Of Brabant, under the house of Austria.* Mary of Burgundy, one of the richest heiresses mentioned in history, on the 19th of August, 1477, was married to the archduke Maximilian, son of the emperor Frederic III., and brought a prodigious accession of wealth, strength, and territory to the house of Austria. Charles V. succeeded to the duchy of Brabant in 1506. The people of Ghent, objecting to pay an extravagant subsidy imposed upon them by his imperial majesty, their contumacy was construed into a revolt; and Charles deprived them of their arsenal, their public revenues, and all their privileges; imposed an



immediate fine of 150,000 florins, and an annual one of 6000; ordered twenty-six of their principal citizens to be strangled, and obliged 500 others to come into his presence with cords about their necks, and in this humiliating situation ask pardon of him.

'In 1548, Charles v. concluded the business commenced by Maximilian his grandfather, relative to the admission of the low countries into the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy. This transaction was finally settled at Augsbourg, by the emperor and the empire assembled in the diet, and all the states of the seventeen Belgic provinces subscribed the conditions. By these it was agreed, that this new circle, in case of necessity, should be defended by the nine others; that it should have its ambassadors at the diet, with the right of a voice, and a seat there; that it should furnish a contingent as large as two electors, both in troops and money, in the wars between christians and christians, but as much as three against the Turks; and that, with the reserve of the contributions to which the sovereign, and the states of the new circle were to consent, it should be independent of all the tribunals of the empire. At length the circle of Burgundy, which the emancipation of the United Provinces, and the conquests of Lewis xiv. had dismembered, was no longer in a situation to raise its contingent to the expences of the empire; and, in consequence of this, it was determined, in the imperial chamber of Wetzlar, in 1729, that it should not pay more than one half of the contribution required of an elector. At present, notwithstanding nothing has ever been finally decided relative to this article, either on the part of the empire, or the circle of Burgundy, it is certain that there is not now any connexion between them.'

In the year 1529, a distemper broke out in Brussels and its neighbourhood, known by the name of *sweetende sieckte*, or the English fever, which committed terrible ravages among the inhabitants.

On the resignation of Charles v. Philip II. succeeded to his dominions, and soon after confided the government of the low countries to Margaret of Austria, duchess of Parma, who established the inquisition at Brussels, and assigned the revenues of several abbeys to new bishops, chosen by herself. These proceedings, which were in express violation of the constitution of Brabant, irritated the first order of the states; and, being succeeded by other grievances, laid the foundation of a civil war.

In 1567 the duke of Alba arrived with an army of Spaniards and Italians, and was nominated governor-general, in the room of the duchess of Parma, who demanded and obtained her recall. He established 'a council of troubles,' which was very justly termed by the people 'a council of blood;' upwards of 18,000 citizens were condemned by it to death, and among others count Egmont, governor of Flanders, who had distinguished himself at the battle of St. Quintin, and was greatly beloved by the nation, and Philip de Montmorenci, commonly called count Horn. After committing a series of unjustifiable cruelties, the duke of Alba, become odious to the nation, and even to himself, was at length

length recalled on the 8th of November, 1576, and the states of all the provinces, Luxembourg excepted, signed the pacification of Ghent, in consequence of which it was stipulated, that the foreign troops were to leave the country.

Don John of Austria was recognised as governor-general by the states; but his conduct having given them cause of offence soon after, they nominated the archduke Mathias in his place, and appointed the prince of Orange lieutenant-general under him: they were vanquished, however, by Don John, in a pitched battle fought at Gemblours in Brabant, in 1578.

Soon after this Philip was deprived of the Low Countries by all the provinces of the union, who bestowed the sovereignty on the duke of Alençon, brother to Henry III. king of France. He accordingly took possession of it in 1582; but the very next year he was deposed, and fifteen hundred of his countrymen massacred at Antwerp, under pretence of having arrogated rights contrary to the privileges of the people.

In 1585, after a siege of more than twelve months, Antwerp surrendered to Philip II., who had before reduced ten provinces to obedience; and on the 5th of May, 1598, that monarch surrendered the sovereignty of the Low Countries to his eldest daughter, married to the archduke Albert.

After a long contest with the Dutch, Philip III. at length found himself under the necessity of acknowledging their independence; and Philip IV., by the treaty of Munster, conceded to them the exclusive navigation of the Scheldt, in express opposition to the interest of the Low Countries, and the rights of nations. It is remarked that in 1650 there were but twenty-eight practitioners of physic, four wine-merchants, and four wig-makers in the city of Brussels.

Maria Theresa succeeded her father Charles VI. in 1740, and appointed prince Charles of Lorraine governor-general of the Low Countries. He was succeeded by the count de Kaenitz-Rettberg in 1744; by the count de Batheani in 1748; the marquis of Botta Adorna in 1749; and the count de Cobentzel in 1753.

The archduke Joseph succeeded his mother Maria Theresa in 1780. This prince, who had been elected king of the Romans at Francfort, on the 27th of April 1764, became emperor on the 18th of August, 1765, on the death of his father Francis I. The empress queen his mother appointed him co-regent of the hereditary states, and grand master of the order of St. Stephen of Hungary. In 1778 he undertook a legitimate war, for the succession to the duchy of Bavaria: but the powers who were guarantees of the peace of Westphalia, thinking that his pretensions militated against their interests, forced him to sign the treaty of Teschen. After the death of the empress, he was inaugurated duke of Lothier, Brabant, and Lembourg on the 17th of July 1781, and swore observance to the *joyeuse entrée*, through the organ of duke Albert of Saxe Teschen, and his consort the archduchess Maria Christina, as governors general of the Low Countries, on the tenth of the same month. If Joseph had chosen to have

have taken the oath himself, he might have done so; for he spent two weeks at Brussels, viz. from the 22d of June to the 6th of July 1781, during the journey which he took in the course of that same year, on purpose to visit several of the European courts.

‘ In 1783 he suppressed many convents in his states, among which were twelve in Brussels, and its immediate neighbourhood.

‘ In 1785 he prepared to attack Holland, on account of the claims which his family had upon Maastricht, in consequence of the xviiiith article of the treaty of the Hague, dated August 20, 1673: but France, which at that period preserved a strict union with the states general, negotiated so efficaciously in their behalf, that he contented himself with receiving a few millions of florins, after which he retired. Between 1786 and 1789, he involved himself in a labyrinth of disputes with his subjects in the Low Countries. On this occasion he was doubtless misled, either by the enemies of the prosperity of the Belgic provinces, or by his own, when he established a general seminary, and abolished the episcopal schools, on the 16th of October 1786; when he made new regulations relative to law-suits, which occasioned the abolition of attornies on the 3d of November following; when he erected courts founded on the wrecks of municipal and seignoral authority, which took cognisance of affairs in the first instance, on the 1st of January 1787; when he appointed on the 12th of March, in the same year, intendants or captains of circles in every province, with an unbounded authority; when he overturned the sovereign council on the 3d of April following; and when, in order to avenge the opposition which he had experienced from the Belgic provinces, on account of these innovations, he transferred the university from Louvain to Brussels, after having exiled several professors, imprisoned citizens of every class in the state, suppressed or contracted the revenues of the abbeys, dissolved the states of Hainault and Brabant, &c.’ We apprehend, that the indiscriminate censure here lavished against the emperor Joseph is unjust, as many of the innovations alluded to above must be allowed to have been highly praise-worthy: the great fault of this prince seems to have been precipitation; for he attempted to croud within the space of eight or ten years a series of reforms, that would have taken half a century to digest and execute.

As Joseph II. died without leaving any children behind him, he was succeeded by his brother Peter Leopold, who had acquired a high reputation for wisdom during the period in which he governed Tuscany as grand duke; but he seems to have gained but little accession to his fame, after his elevation to the imperial throne. At the close of a short, and rather unfortunate reign, he was succeeded by his son the present emperor Francis II.; who also found himself unable to conciliate the affections of the Brabantines. Indeed so great was the injustice which they had experienced during the government of the last three princes of the house of Austria, that they looked upon the French as their deliverers from the most cruel slavery; and, had the newly-



founded republic paid a scrupulous regard to their rights and franchises, there is little doubt but that the Belgic provinces would have either become a sovereign independent state, and bravely sustained their liberty by force of arms, or have cordially united themselves to France, and shared the fate of that country.

We shall here translate a passage from the life of Henry VI. count of Louvain, who began his reign in 1247, in order to show, that the inhabitants of the Low Countries enjoyed extraordinary privileges and immunities from a very early period.

‘Both among the Belgians and Batavians, there existed a privilege, in consequence of which none of their sovereigns had ever dared to constrain them to serve out of the limits of their respective provinces. It is not meant by this to affirm, that they never followed their sovereigns out of their territories: but on such occasions their service was always voluntary, and they were always recompensed at the expence of the usurped prerogatives of the throne, by the dukes or counts who then reigned over them; and hence originated the *joyeuse entrée* so celebrated in Brabant; hence those privileges and immunities, which the other provinces of the Low Countries, heretofore under the Austrian yoke, have always gloried in

‘Henry, who doubtless did not wish to found the wishes of his people on this subject, never made them the proposition. This, however, did not prevent him, undoubtedly on account of other military services rendered him, or from motives of finance, to confirm the decree of the duke his father, which was but a renewal of former charters, in consequence of which, “no inhabitant of Brabant could be tried, but by his own magistrates;” he also conceded to all the inhabitants of the duchy, even to the *serfs*, [bonds-men] the great privilege “of never paying any extraordinary tax without their formal and express will, unless any of the neighbouring princes should make incursions into their territories, &c.”

We also find that the states, when they suspected their dukes to be improvident, were accustomed to grant subsidies, under the express condition, that the money should be paid into the hands of some of their own members, who were to superintend the application of it: this actually occurred during the reign of duke Philip in 1427, the grant being confided to the disposition of four members of the second, and two of the third order. In consequence of the charter termed the ‘golden bull of the Brabantines,’ granted by the emperor Charles IV. about 1355, no prince of the empire, whether lay or ecclesiastical, could take cognizance of any crime committed within his territories, by any inhabitant of the duchy, provided he was claimed by his own sovereign, who alone was to sit on judgment upon him.

Under the government of John III., A.D. 1312, great and extraordinary privileges were also granted them by that prince; and during the reign of his predecessor John II., four nobles were chosen out of each of the cities of Brabant, in order to examine the rights and immunities of the inhabitants, and inquire

quire whether any errors had crept into the administration of justice: these were also instructed to point out the mode of preventing the like in future. This is said to have been the origin of the sovereign court of the council of Brabant, which was transferred to Brussels in 1372.

We are sorry that the articles of the *joyeuse entrée* are not inserted in this tract; we, however, have sufficient evidence to enable us to discern, that the *Brabantines* originally possessed an excellent constitution, which has suffered repeatedly from the oppressions of the house of Austria, the venality, corruption, and time-serving compliance of their own nobles, and, above all, from the dominion of a priesthood, noted equally for its insolence and for its rapacity.

s.

ART. II. *Correspondance Originale des Emigrés, &c.* Original Correspondence of the Emigrants; or the Character of the Emigrants, as painted by themselves. 8vo. about 550 pages. Paris. 1793. Imported by J. Boffe.

IF the French patriots have been guilty of excesses, it must be at the same time acknowledged, that the emigrants in general can pretend to but little virtue; and indeed, whoever takes the pains to examine the work before us, will be induced to imagine, that they have evinced as much fanaticism in favour of slavery, as their enemies have exhibited in the cause of freedom. We shall here present the reader with a translation of the preface, observing at the same time, that we by no means give our sanction to the attempt at palliating the odious massacre of the 2nd of September.

‘The present work is an exact and faithful collection of the correspondence seized by general Kellerman’s advanced guard on the emigrants taken at Verdun and Longwy, and in the portfolios of *Monsieur*, and of Mr. Ostorne, secretary to Mr. de Calonne, which at the same time fell into the possession of the French. To this are added many other interesting papers, either intercepted, or found in Savoy: the originals are deposited in the archives of the national convention.

‘It has been affirmed by a sage, that we should hold vice in abhorrence if we could but see her naked: it is with the same sentiment that the credulous and deluded part of mankind will now contemplate the emigrants; and surely, in this point of view, they have been exceedingly useful to us, by teaching weak minds to detest them, exactly in the same manner as Lewis the last has taught the French to detest royalty, and to become republicans.

‘It is impossible to have a truer picture of this class of men than what is exhibited in their own letters. It is there, that in the effusions of their dark and guilty treasons they exhibit themselves in all their native turpitude; that they discover all the horrors of their perfidy, and the secret of their manœuvres; in one word, it is human perversity put into action. We behold the *marquis*, after having deserted the post which the nation had confided to his care, affirming “that he loves his king, and that he will combat for the overthrow of equality, as long as he has a drop of blood remaining in his veins;” the marchioness mingles

with the most detestable lust, and the most luxurious prostitutions, the outward forms of a wild devotion, and the secret projects of an implacable vengeance. The debauched prelate terms the reign of liberty "the abomination of desolation," and longs for the moment, when, in the name of the God of mercy, he can annihilate his enemies, by means of fire and sword. The *boly father* himself ascends the pulpit of peace, to launch forth from it the lies and the artifices of Italy!

' We have beheld these vile slaves, ferocious in 1791, when they anticipated a harvest of treasons; and cowardly and despairing in 1792, when they were obliged to combat in the presence of freemen, and rally around a constitutional monarch, who made use of the favours of the nation on purpose to betray it under the shadow of the laws.

' Previous to the 10th of August, the courageous patriots, who, notwithstanding their persecutions, endeavoured to save their country, were treated as perturbators and rebels. That happy day has opened the eyes of thousands, but some, whose optics are too feeble to behold the light, still keep them shut. Let such read this book!—In it they will behold the true authors of all our calamities; they will see, that those actions which they formerly termed crimes have achieved the salvation of the republic; they will henceforth consider the emigrants as worthy of all their hatred; and if they still choose to recall the memory of the 2d of September, when a vengeance perhaps cruel, but provoked, may have overwhelmed some men of equivocal characters, we shall answer them in the words of one of the *Marseillaise*, who exclaimed: "my brother was murdered by my side, on account of his love of liberty; I will avenge his fate!"

We shall now exhibit a few specimens of the correspondence contained in the work before us, and, as it is arranged under different heads, we shall begin with,

#### LETTERS OF DEVOTION.

' *To M. Deyzac, to the care of the Marquis de la Queuille, at Brussels.*

' *December 27, 1791.*

' I am spending my money very fast, my dear Deyzac; but in whose behalf? In that of my God and my king. I have not any thing which I would not lose in their service, not even my life, therefore I am not tormented with the bitterness of regret. How happy shall I be, if I behold religion and the throne once more rearing their heads! Find me some more cash. \* \* \* \* \*

' *To M. Hernborn.*

' *July 25.*

' Ah! what a spawn of corruption! They unceasingly torment religion. You can no longer go to mass. The people live like so many dogs.

' Our affairs go on but slowly; the *inviolables*\* do as they please; they proceed from bad to worse; they speak even of the king with irreverence!

MARIA.'

\* The members of the national assembly.

' *Madame*



‘ *Madame la Comtesse de Rochegude, to her husband, serving in the fourth company of the coalition of Auvergne, in the Army of the Princes.*

‘ *Aix, September 22, 1792.*

‘ I can alone succour you by means of my prayers and my ardent wishes. Never did I pray with more fervour. I often conjure the all-powerful Lord and his holy mother, to preserve to you a life which you will employ along with me in works of sanctification, by educating our children in a christian-like manner, and by meriting heaven. I reckon very much also on the prayers of those good souls, our friends. They recommend you in a particular manner to the protection of the little Jesus; and mademoiselle de Reinglen, that good girl, yesterday offered up a communion for you to the Lord.

‘ I admire your confidence in the mother of Jesus, I am sure that she will save you; I pray to her as you do, several times a day \* \* \* \* \*.

#### LOVE LETTERS.

We shall translate but one note under this head.

‘ *Madame de \*\*\*\*\*, to M. le Baron de Vincy, at the Princes Head-Quarters.*

‘ *Sept. 8, 1792.*

‘ You inform me, my adorable friend, that you are troubled with the piles; this circumstance makes me horribly uneasy; cannot you contrive to have some leeches applied by an aristocrat—do you comprehend me? I am sufficiently acquainted with your delicacy, to hope, my dear baron, that you will love me always. I swoon away, my love, when I think of you. *My husband embraces you, and loves you from the bottom of his heart.* Your last letter was destined for me only, my amiable friend—ah! how tender it was! I love you, I love you dearly \* \* \* \* \*.

#### CONFIDENTIAL LETTERS.

The following epistle will show how sanguine the emigrants were, in respect to the success of the combined armies.

‘ *M. le Comte \*\*\*\*\*, an officer in the army of the Duke of Bourbon, near Namur, to M. de Valmeneir, in the army of the Princes.*

‘ *Namur, October 6, 1792.*

‘ *Monsieur*, the king’s brother, has appointed an officer in my company to be town-major of Montreuil, a place vacant by death. Since employments are thus disposed of, and the command given away of towns which we have not as yet taken, I think that I have pretensions sufficient to enable me to be appointed *lieutenant de Roi* of R\*\*\*\*\*. The *brevet* of major which I have been in possession of ever since 1781, gives me a title to this favour, and M. de Broglie has already testified his desire to serve me.’

‘ *To M. Leboyer, at the Princes’ Head-Quarters.*

‘ *Treves, October 8, 1792.*

‘ No, my friend, I can never believe in an accommodation, because it is impossible that sovereigns like the king of Prussia and the emperor should be reduced to this extremity by these *sans culottes*. Would such formidable powers lower themselves so much, as to treat with an assembly, like that of France?’

GASCONADES.

## GASCONADES.

‘ *To M. de Beauchamps, a mousquetaire, in the brigade of Vergennes, army of the Princes, brothers of the King, near Verdun.*

‘ *Duke of Bourbon’s Head-Quarters, near Namur, October 5, 1792.*

‘ You will now go post to Paris. Dumourier’s army, which we before knew to be surrounded, after the truce of four days granted to them, has been beaten, cut to pieces, and nearly destroyed. Fifty thousand patriots fell upon the spot. This victory cost the Austrians 10,000 men. What a pity it is, that 10,000 brave men should have fallen ! \* \* \* \* \*

‘ *To M. le Prince de Roban, aid-de-camp to M. le Comte d’ Artois.*

‘ *Brussels, September 21, 1792.*

‘ They say, my dear boy, that the Austrians are about to commence the siege of Lille ; but the rebels have had time to reinforce the garrison.

‘ Is it possible that the king of Prussia cannot reach Paris before the 20th of October ? How many horrors will they have time to commit until that period ?’

## PROJECTS OF VENGEANCE.

‘ *To the Marquis de Gibert, at the Head-Quarters of their Royal Highnesses the Princes, brothers to the King of France.*

‘ My dear friend, why do not they punish the patriots immediately when they take them prisoners ? It is absolutely necessary to make examples. At Brussels, I am told, they strip them, and leave them naked \* \* \* \* \*’

‘ *Resnaisvillen, Count de Pire, to the Count de Tolongeon, lieutenant-general in the armies of the King of France, in the camp of Etange.*

‘ *Luxembourg, Sept. 28, 1792.*

‘ It is necessary that Thionville should be brought to reason, by means of a shower of red-hot bullets. The success of the sieges of Lille, and of other strong places, necessarily depends upon the first example ; firmness in the execution of menaces proves the extent of power. Let the king of Prussia then place those robbers under his hand, and squeeze them to death’

‘ *To M. de Malvoisin, Comte de Menars, officer in the carabineers belonging to the army of the centre, at Longwy.*

‘ *Hay, near Liege, Sept. 7, 1792.*

‘ I am utterly ignorant, like the rest of the world, whether you are dead or alive. What vexes me exceedingly is, that we shall remain here until the capture of Thionville ; it is said, that there are fifteen hundred *Marseillaise* within it ; I hope that they will either be shot or hanged. This is what one may term a little indispensable bit of gaiety !’

## EMBARRASMENTS.

‘ *The Marquis de Vienne, chargé des affaires of the Princes, to M. Ober de Monlagnat, gentleman of the horse to his highness Monsieur.*

‘ Three carriages belonging to Monsieur, and nine others belonging to noblemen, although placed in a retired situation, have been discovered, and seized by a person called Michel Hern, of Andernach,

Andernach, for the sum of 1104 livres, due by the princes; another seizure has been made, by one Scherds Baletina, for 1500 livres due to her, and 1500 to her son.'

'Treves, OA. 8, 1792.

## DISTRESS.

Under this head there are various of letters, by which it appears, that many of the principal emigrants, with their wives and children, were reduced to the most abject wretchedness.

'Madame de Bonbour to M. Wicons, at the Princes' Head-Quarters.

'I have sold the clothes which you mentioned to me, and also your green breeches; I have done every thing in my power to make the best possible bargain, and I assure you that I have taken a deal of trouble, for I have caused them to be hawked about every where; in short I have sold them to M. Cul, for a single louis. As to your blue waistcoat and breeches, I could not procure any thing for them. What misery, my love!'

'M. \*\*\*\* to M. de Goular, one of the King's garde-du-corps, belonging to the 1st Squadron of the Scots' company.

'Peurnant, near Namur, OA. 7, 1792.

'We are in the most unhappy situation; I have not any money wherewith to purchase bread; we are at present quartered in a little village, where we lie upon hay; we are sometimes five whole days without receiving any rations (forage and provision), and remain twenty hours on horseback, without eating any thing; I wish to be in some other corps (he was in the advanced guard of the army commanded by the duke of Bourbon); nothing now remains but my horse, and I must soon be obliged to eat him also.'

'M. Vissdelon to his brother-in-law M. de Cuverville, knight of the royal order of St. Louis, in the army of the Princes.

'Haudoin, near Namur.

'We are all afraid of being obliged to spend the whole winter here. The lodgings which we occupy consist of garrets, coach-houses, and stables; instead of a mattress, we have a bundle of straw, and scarcely room enough to stretch ourselves out.'

'Madame, to M. de Tugnot, one of the body guards of M. d'Artois, at the Princes' Head Quarters.

'October 8, 1792.

'It is asserted, that the Prussian armies are about to take up their winter-quarters in Lorraine; that they expect the king of France there; and that the emigrants have permission to go wherever they please, to die with hunger, along with their unfortunate wives. Great God! what a prospect.

'We are in want of every thing, and shall soon be reduced to our last farthing. I shall be under the necessity of selling my diamonds for one half of their value. If you are disbanded, you will no doubt come home, in order to die of hunger with us.'

## BEGGING LETTERS.

The former will, no doubt, operate as an ample excuse, in behalf of the present article; we shall therefore translate but one short note, relative to a person well known in this country.

'The



\* *The Marquis de Vienne to the Count de Morfon, chamberlain to his Majesty the King of Prussia, commissioner from the Princes and French Nobility at Treves.*

*Luxembourg, Sept. 29, 1792.*

‘ My wife and myself are in the utmost distress, being without a single sou; assist us, I beseech you; I cannot go to Greven Mak, for I have not money to enable me to undertake the journey. Send me some louis, we cannot here procure change for assignats, you know the reason—it is because they are forged—being fabricated at M. de C.’s manufactory. I am absolutely without a single liard. I have left the apartment which I had at Vache, being unable to pay for it any longer.’

#### REFLECTIONS.

The following is the only letter, in which humanity, and a rational, and sound policy are recommended.

\* *The Baroness de Bois-d’Aisy to her husband, commander in chief of the horse grenadiers, in the army of the Duke of Brunswick, at Luxembourg.*

*Fribourg, Sept. 4, 1792.*

‘ I wish to God the emigrants would reflect, that when a country submits to them, they should no longer dream of vengeance, but of regaining the affections of the inhabitants; we have much need of this, and if we justify the hatred which the people have been inspired with against us we shall never find either peace or repose. It ought to be recollected, that if we had not made so many *bravadoes*, and so often evinced a thirst of vengeance, approaching to the *ferocity* of the patriots, &c.; and if the emigrants in Germany had behaved themselves in a more sage and noble manner, we should have acted a part in this war, far more honourable and more important.

‘ If experience will not correct us, what lesson can be of any service?’

#### LETTERS WRITTEN BY SPIES.

In one of these, addressed to the *Vicomte d’Allard*, and dated from Chamberry, Sept 21, 1792, it is asserted, that the ambassador of the elector of Hanover had been intriguing against France, and that he had induced all the circles of the empire to become inimical to the republic. In addition to this, he insinuates, that the king of Great-Britain would soon declare war against the French, and block up all their ports, with a squadron then fitting out, expressly for that purpose.

#### MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION.

The two following letters are curious, as they principally relate to a man, who seems to have been destined to act a very great and extraordinary part in the affairs of France.

\* *From M. Reunette, colonel of the regiment de Ligne, to the Baron de Montigni, lieutenant-colonel and commandant of the same regiment, in the camp before Lisle.*

*October 12.*

‘ My dear lieutenant-colonel, I received your letter with great pleasure; the interest which I take in every thing that concerns the regiment, made me long for it most ardently.

‘ I am, and ever have been of opinion, that the siege of Lisle will not prosper. How could they think of undertaking it? Is it true that general Braun is very ill?’

‘ I was

‘ I was assured yesterday, that the prince of Brunswick and general Clairfait have retreated ever since the 3d of the present month. The first has permitted himself to be deceived by Dumourier, by *allowing* him an armistice for twenty-four hours.

‘ They have burnt the magazines at Spire; M. Erbach’s appearance has decided the garrison of Landau to fall forth, in order to make incursions; Mentz has experienced the most cruel affright; I hope that M. de Nassau will be able to repel the enemy. If we raise the siege of Lisle, and do not carry Thionville, we shall be disturbed all the winter on our frontiers.

‘ It is very extraordinary, that the prince of Brunswick should fail in a contest with a Dumourier.

‘ Every countenance here has become smooth, on account of the good news in behalf of the *democrats* and malecontents, who are numerous in this place. Patience.’

‘ *Intercepted letter, without either signature or address.*

‘ *Brussels, O.S. 15, 1792.*

‘ The campaign has miscarried:—1st, Because Brunswick marched in a wrong direction;—2d, because he confided in the word of the *little tiger* (Dumourier), who has deceived him. This campaign will give one more winter’s reign to the rogues, misery to the kingdom, and prison to the king. This is what this *little tiger* will gain, who has unceasingly vaunted himself in all his letters, to be a *courageous lion*, when he was nothing more than a *cunning fox*. But a man always wishes to be what he is not: the fact is, that he has evinced more genius than those poor Germans, who might have gone in a trice to Paris, had they been conducted by a Frenchman, who possessed a little cleverness, like this fellow, for example. In addition to my present letter, I transmit you under another cover, that life of Lafayette which you mentioned to me; it will amuse your friends. This wretch is in the fortress of Wesel, where he does nothing but weep. Has it rained during seven whole weeks without intermission, in France, as it has done here? The *sans-culottes* are under great obligations to this same rain!’

We shall close this article with the translation of a prophecy, to which our readers will no doubt affix the proper value.

‘ *Prediction of St. Cezaire, bishop of Arles, in 542, extracted from a book entitled Liber Mirabilis, printed in Gothic characters, and deposited in the king’s library.*

‘ The rulers of this kingdom shall become so blind, that it will be left without defenders; the hand of God shall lie heavy upon them, and upon all the rich.

‘ All the nobles shall be deprived of their estates and dignities.

‘ A schism shall spring up in the church of God; there shall be two spouses, the one true, and the other adulterous.

‘ The legitimate spouse shall be put to flight; there shall be a great carnage, and as great an effusion of blood, as in the time of the Gentiles; the universal church, and the whole world shall deplore the ruin and the capture of that most celebrated city, the capital and the mistress of France; the altars and the temples shall be destroyed; the holy virgins, after experiencing

periencing many outrages, shall fly from their monasteries; the pastors of the church shall abandon their pulpits; the church herself shall be despoiled of all her temporalities.

‘ But at length, the black eagle and the lion shall arrive from a far country.

‘ Woe to thee, city of opulence! thou shalt rejoice at first, but thy end shall come.

‘ Woe to thee, city of philosophy! thou shalt be forced to submit.

‘ A king in captivity, and humbled even to confusion, shall at length recover his crown of lilies, and destroy the children of Brutus \* \* \* \* \*’

This extract has been verified at the royal library, where the original is deposited. o.

ART. III. *Secret History of the Court and Reign of Charles II., &c.*  
[Concluded from Vol. XIV. p. 137.]

THE first occurrence of any consequence in 1661, was an insurrection headed by one Venner, a wine-cooper, who preached the immediate appearance and reign of Jesus Christ upon earth. On the 6th of January, at eleven o'clock at night, they sallied out from their religious meeting completely armed, and committed some violences, when they retired to Caenwood. Their numbers not being above thirty, they were easily defeated by a party of armed men, headed by the lord mayor. Above half of them were shot dead, the rest were severely wounded, and only one asked for quarter. About ten or twelve of them were executed. This disturbance afforded the duke of York a pretext for the enforcing of arbitrary measures; and thus a way was paved for the maintenance of a standing army, under the name of guards.

Great difficulties arose at this time concerning the settlement of the church, and the satisfaction of the clergy, as well as the old tenants, and the new purchasers of the church lands. In the mean time the abuses of the church were all left unreformed, and the inferior clergy miserably provided for. On the 23d of April, 1661, the ceremony of the coronation was performed. Previous to this event, the king wished to remove his father's body from Windsor to Westminster, but it could not be found. During the interval of parliament, a treaty was concluded with Portugal; which was soon after followed by a treaty of marriage between the king and the infanta, who had for her portion 500,000*l.*, the port of Tangiers, and Bombay in the East-Indies, with the liberty of trading to Brazil.

On the 8th of May, 1661, the new parliament met, and few of the independents or republicans were returned, so strongly did the tide of popularity run against them; and the two houses soon proceeded to pull up by the roots all principles of resistance to the regal authority.—VOL. I. p. 412.

‘ They first ordered the solemn league and covenant to be taken out of all the courts and places where it was recorded, and to be burnt by the common hangman; and in three days after, they passed the like order for burning all the other acts, ordinances, or engagements, which had been dictated by a republican spirit during the late times. They declared the distinction formerly made between the king's person and



and his office to be treason; that his negative voice could not be taken from him; and that his assent was so essential to the making of a law, that no order, or ordinance of either house could be binding to the subject without it. They made it felony to affirm that the king was a papist, or popishly affected; or to raise any calumnies of that kind for the purpose of alienating the affections of his subjects. They confirmed to his majesty the sole and supreme power, and disposition of the militia, and of all forces by sea and land, declaring this to be a right inseparably vested in the crown. In short, they vindicated all his regalities and prerogatives; and were thought by many sober men to have gone too far in their resentment, or eradication of antimonarchical principles, and to have paid too little regard to the rights and freedom of the subject, in their intemperate zeal for the security of the king's person and government.\*

They were not less liberal in supplying the wants of the king. The bishops were also restored to their seats in parliament; and on the 13th of July parliament adjourned. The parliament, at its second meeting in November, did not lose any particle of its loyalty. The disbanded soldiers, and all disloyal persons, were ordered twenty miles from London. Fresh supplies were voted; and the famous corporation act was passed. Additions were made to the liturgy, reflecting strongly on the rebellious spirit of those who had opposed regal authority. The act of uniformity was passed, and the dissenters were ensnared by a promise from the king that it should not be rigorously enforced. In direct defiance, however, of this promise, two thousand clergy were expelled from their benefices in one day. On the 15th of May, 1662, parliament was prorogued.—Vol. I. p. 445.

\* Whatever testimonies of public joy were given on this occasion, yet in a short time there appeared not that serenity at court, which was expected. There was a lady of youth and beauty\*, with whom the king had lived in great and notorious familiarity from the time of his coming into England; and who, a little before the queen's arrival, had been delivered of a son, whom the king owned. The scandal of such a connection, though she was a married woman, had hitherto been the less in consideration of the king's being young, vigorous, and single; and upon a presumption, that when he should be married, he would contain himself within stricter bounds of decency and virtue. But it soon appeared that this favourite mistress

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\* This was the famous, or rather infamous Barbara Villiers, who had been married to a Mr. Palmer; but who had as little regard for decency or virtue as Charles. Their criminal intercourse began the very night of the restoration. An attempt was made to bribe her husband's acquiescence by the title of earl of Castlemain; and afterwards, upon his separating from her, she was advanced to be duchess of Cleveland. Burnet tells us, "she was a woman of great beauty, but most enormously vicious and ravenous; foolish, but imperious; very uneasy to the king; and always carrying on intrigues with other men, while yet she pretended she was jealous of him. His passion for her, and her strange behaviour towards him, did so disorder him, that often he was not master of himself, nor capable of minding business." Sufficient proofs of this are given in the above history.

not only retained, but greatly increased her former influence; and succeeded too well in completely alienating the king's affections from his queen, and filling him with prejudices against the virtuous counsels of his best friends.

\* When the queen came to Hampton-court, she brought with her a formed resolution that she would never suffer the lady, who was so much spoken of, to be in her presence. The king was determined on the very reverse; and, in a day or two, led the lady himself into her majesty's chamber, and presented her to the queen, who received her with the same grace as she had done the rest, there being many lords and other ladies at the same time there. But whether her majesty in the instant knew who she was, or upon recollection found it afterwards, she no sooner sat down in her chair than her colour changed, tears gushed out of her eyes, her nose bled, and she fainted, so that she was forthwith removed into another room, and all the company withdrew. Though these were the natural workings of flesh and blood in a young and jealous wife, the king was so enraged, that, from that moment, he treated the queen even in public with the utmost indifference and indignity, till her spirit being at length broken by such cruelty, and the firmness of her mind exhausted in useless struggles, she sunk into the opposite extreme of condescension and meanness. She not only admitted the lady to be of her bedchamber, and used her kindly in private, but was familiar and merry with her in public; so that her majesty forfeited all the compassion before felt for the barbarity of the affronts she underwent; and the king's indifference was now changed into a settled contempt.

\* During this unhappy contest between a wife and a mistress, the spirit of intrigue, the strength of personal influence, and all the arts of persuasion were fully exerted by the different factions at court. The chancellor and his friends went as far in their endeavours to dissuade the king from his improper purposes, as they could do without incurring his absolute displeasure. They warned him of the fatal consequences of such conduct, and proved very clearly that it was not less inconsistent with policy than with religion. But all their arguments and remonstrances were in vain. The violence of his majesty's passion made him listen with more pleasure to those who flattered it. The earl of Bristol, and several other ambitious and profligate men, who dreaded the queen's gaining any ascendancy, and the increase of the chancellor's power from her good opinion of him, paid their court to the other lady, and left nothing undone, or unsaid, to rivet the king's attachment to her. All scruples on the score of religion they turned into ridicule, as if it were only an invention of the clergy to impose upon men, and to restrain them from the liberty and use of those faculties which God and nature had given them. Besides, they said, his marriage was in fact dissolved by the breach of the conditions on the part of Portugal. They then addressed themselves to the king's passions; first to his pride, by suggesting to him the disgrace of giving up the point to a woman infected with all the caprice and jealousy of her country; and next to his love, by still more artful and seducing insinuations, they said, "that the charms of his person and professions had won the heart of a young and beautiful lady of a noble extraction, whose father had lost his life in the service of the crown; that she had provoked the jealousy and rage of her husband to that degree,

degree, that he had separated himself from her, and now the disconsolate lady had no place of retreat left from the infamy of the world but in his majesty's tenderness and protection." Thus was the king encouraged in his worst propensities; the lady had apartments assigned her at court; his majesty spent most of his time in her company, or in the conversation of those, whose greatest talent consisted in being able to raise a laugh at the expence of every thing serious and sacred; and the wisest men despaired of finding any remedies to apply to the increasing dissoluteness and debauchery of the times.

Soon after his marriage, the queen mother returned to England with the son of Lucy Walters, afterwards duke of Monmouth, and then a youth of about thirteen. Several instances of the king's absurd partiality for this young man are recorded in the volumes before us. During all this time the chancellor lost ground, and his credit suffered a material injury by the sale of Dunkirk, for which he appears to have incurred much more blame than he deserved.

The parliament met in February 1663, and soon evinced its spirit by an address against toleration. In the mean time new favourites succeeded to power, particularly sir Harry Bennet and Mr. W. Coventry, and the chancellor's influence visibly declined. This was soon followed by an open charge against him by the earl of Bristol. A variety of intrigues were also formed for the removal of secretary Nicholas, who was at length superseded by sir Harry Bennet. Parliament was prorogued on the 27th of July.

The first business in the parliament of 1664 was to repel the bill for triennial parliaments. This was followed by an act to suppress conventicles. On the 17th of May it was prorogued.

It would greatly exceed our limits to insert our author's long and apparently accurate statement of the motives and causes for the Dutch war, the principal of which, however, appears to have been the influence of the duke of York. The Dutch were treacherously attacked in various parts of the world, but the brave de Ruyter soon retaliated on their enemies. On the 24th of November, 1664, parliament met, but, unexpectedly to the court, appeared backward in voting supplies for the Dutch war. Offices and commissions were now indiscriminately sold to the highest bidder, and the most shameful corruption pervaded the court. The chancellor's disgrace was preceded by the following circumstances.—VOL. II. p. 126.

'The nightly meetings at lady Castlemaine's had of late made him more the subject of discourse; and since the appointment of the new secretary, as I have noticed elsewhere, they had taken more liberty than before to talk of what was done in council. The Duke of Buckingham pleased himself and the company by mimicking the looks and actions of all the persons who spoke there; and in this ridiculous exhibition the chancellor was sure to have a full part. In the height of mirth, if the king said he would go a journey, or do such a trivial thing on the morrow, some of the party would lay a wager, that he would not do it; and when he asked why, it was answered, "that the chancellor would not let him." Then another would protest, "that he thought there was no ground for that imputation; though he could not deny, that it was generally believed abroad, that his majesty was entirely and implicitly governed by the chancellor." This was touching his majesty upon the tenderest string; for though



his unconquerable indolence and his easiness of belief made him the constant dupe of designing and presumptuous men, yet he was extremely jealous of the supposed independency of his own will, and could not endure the least suspicion of his being governed by the dictates or counsels of another. When such things were insinuated, he never failed to declare in a great passion, that the chancellor had no more credit with him than any other man; and certainly, his majesty was afterwards more upon his guard against shewing even any outward marks of particular respect for the chancellor's advice.'

In the winter of 1665 the plague broke out. In the mean time the war was pursued with various success. While the parliament sat at Oxford during the plague, the famous *five mile act* which prohibited non-conformist preachers from coming within five miles of cities or towns corporate was passed. After christmas, early in the year 1666, the plague began to abate, and entirely disappeared in March.—p. 212.

'When the parliament at Oxford was prorogued, it was to a day in April; but the king had reason to believe that they would not so soon be in good humour enough to give more money, which was the principal end of calling them together. His majesty therefore thought fit to dispense with their attendance at that time, and caused them to be prorogued to the twentieth of September following. In the mean time the court abounded in all sorts of excesses. There had been some hope during the abode at Oxford that the queen was with child; and whilst that hope lasted, the king seemed to impose some restraint on his inordinate appetites and pleasures. Several persons were then inclined to believe, that if he had a child by his lawful wife, it might have contributed to break off many fatal connections, and to put an end to those extravagant expences of money and time, which disturbed and corrupted his nature, and which exposed him to the temptations of those, who had all the traps and snares to catch and detain him.

'The imagination of the queen's breeding was one cause of her stay at Oxford; and her stay there was the longer, because she miscarried, when she intended to begin her journey. The doctors declared, that it was a real miscarriage ripe enough to make a judgment of the sex. Yet some of the women, who had more credit with the king, assured him that it was only a false conception, and that she had not been at all with child; and though his majesty had, upon a former occasion, declared to the queen his mother and others, that upon his own knowledge her majesty had miscarried of a son, yet he suffered himself now to be so far imposed upon by those ladies, that he positively believed that she never had been, and never could be with child. From that time he took little pleasure in her conversation, and indulged himself without the least restraint in such dissolute company, as drove every thing serious out of his thoughts.

'Lady Castlemaine, who had never declined in favour, was now greater in power than ever. She was with child again, and well enough contented that his majesty should entertain an amour with another lady, whose friendship she even courted, perhaps out of confidence, that the king would never prevail upon the other lady, who was known to be a person of great modesty and discretion. Her own great object was to secure the king's esteem by such seeming compliance, and to get a good provision for herself and children. In solicitations of this kind she was never backward: she procured round

sums

sums of money out of the privy purse, where she had placed Mr. May, and other assignments in other names, so as to be less taken notice of, though in great proportions. Yet all amounted to little more than to pay her debts, (which she had in a few years contracted to an inconceivable greatness) and to defray her constant expences, which were almost boundless, in coaches and horses, clothes and jewels, without any thing of generosity, or gratifying any of her family, or so much as satisfying any of her father's creditors, some of whom were very clamorous. Her name was not used in any suits for the grant of lands in this country, because she thought the chancellor and treasurer might oppose such grants, and she did not wish to have any occasion to try the kindness of either of them; and so all the suits she made of that kind were with reference to Ireland, where they had no title to obstruct, nor any natural opportunity of knowing what was granted: in that kingdom, therefore, she procured the settlement of some very valuable estates upon herself and her children.'

The plague was succeeded by the fire of London, which took place on the 1st and 2d of September 1666. On this occasion a poor mad Frenchman of the name of Hubert was executed on his own confession; but our author's sentiments are as follow.—p. 244.

'Upon the whole, after the most diligent inquiry by the privy-council, and next by a committee appointed by parliament to investigate the matter; no satisfactory proof was ever discovered of any design or combination. Charges were, indeed, brought against many, but none of them could be substantiated; nor was there any probable evidence (that poor creature Hubert excepted) of any other cause of that woeful fire than the first accident of its breaking out in a baker's house, where there was so great a stock of faggots, and in the neighbourhood of much combustible matter, such as pitch, rosin, and the like, that led it in an instant from house to house in Thames-street, with the agitation of so terrible a wind to scatter and disperse it.'

The parliament, which had been so pliant, became in a little time utterly hostile to the court. The supplies were retarded, and a bill was brought in for the examination of the public accounts. On this occasion, the fatal indiscretion of the chancellor in opposing the bill drew upon him fresh odium. The difficulty of raising supplies, and the impossibility of providing a fleet to face the enemy, induced the court in the beginning of 1667 to think of peace; and this inclination was strongly promoted by the appearance of a Dutch fleet, which entered the Thames in the beginning of June. After many delays, the peace was at length concluded on the 21st of July.

The court favourites were no sooner relieved from their cares concerning the war, than they pushed with redoubled vehemence their intrigues against the chancellor. He was removed from his office, and, in the parliament which met in October 1667, impeached.—p. 342.

'While this contest was carried on with great heat on both sides, and to the total neglect of all public business, the earl's friends in the house of lords finding that many of their party deserted them every day, and joined the faction of the court, were very urgent with the earl to quit the kingdom, as the only means of avoiding that persecution, against which neither his own innocence, nor their efforts could long protect him. The king himself did not wish that the articles of impeachment should undergo a public discussion, and was

therefore content that intimations should be given to the earl of his majesty's desire that he should withdraw himself into any parts beyond the seas, and that if he did so, neither his honour nor fortune should suffer by absence. Threats were also held out, sometimes that the people were so incensed at the obstruction of public justice by the lords refusing to commit the earl, that they intended to pull down his house, and the houses of all those who adhered to him; and at other times, that there were secret consultations about sending a guard of soldiers to seize and convey him to the Tower. The earl in this situation foreseeing the mischiefs that must arise from the disagreement between the two houses, and uncertain what the malice of his enemies might terminate in, only wanted some evidence of his majesty's commands or wish for his departure, which he received at length in a message from the duke of York, who in this unhappy conjuncture had fallen sick, and was still confined by the small pox. Upon this the earl resolved to delay no longer, but withdrew in the night of the twenty-ninth of November, leaving the following address to the house of peers, which was delivered to them by the earl of Denbigh, as soon as he got advice of the unfortunate fugitive's arrival at Calais.

The earl was soon after formally banished, and thus the ungrateful and perfidious Charles filled up the measure of his iniquities, and left himself in the hands of a profligate junto, whose ill conduct afterwards had nearly undone the nation, and certainly precipitated the ruin of his unfortunate brother.

The supplement contains a summary and spirited continuation of the reign of Charles; but as we have so lately gone over this ground in our extensive account of Dr. Somerville's history, and as it is professedly taken from Mrs. Macaulay, our readers will scarcely expect an analysis of it.

D.

## M E D I C I N E.

ART. IV. *Memoirs of the Medical Society of London*, Vol. III.

[ Continued from p. 48. ]

Art. 16. *Observations on certain herpetic affections, attended with painful irritation.* By J. C. Lettsom, M. D.—In this paper the reader will find a description of an irritable itching affection about the anus, which the writer has observed chiefly to occur in the male sex, and mostly in the decline of life, in persons liable to herpetic eruptions and arthritic complaints. It does not seem otherwise dangerous, in the writer's opinion, than by preventing sleep and increasing debility, by which dyspepsia and similar disorders are produced. The part affected has little appearance of local disease. In the cure the writer dissuades us from the use of repellent and astringent applications. He recommends the body to be kept open by gentle laxatives, and to have recourse to mild alteratives with hemlock fomentations. Issues and blisters are also advised. Opium with antimonials has likewise been found of use. Another affection which this physician has met with is a *pruritus in vagina*, occurring in females of delicate and irritable



irritable habits. In these cases the author found sea bathing of service, and saturnine applications were not injurious.

Art. 17. *Remarks on the angina and scarlet fever of 1778.* By James Johnstone, M. D. &c., Worcester.—Having given an account of the different circumstances with which these diseases were attended, the author proceeds to the method of cure he pursued; in which we find nothing uncommon, except it be the recommendation of a more free exposure of the patients in these diseases to the open air.

Art. 18. *Of the lepra græcorum.* By William Falconer, M. D. F. R. S. and C. M. S.—Dr. Falconer observes, that this disease, although not uncommon, is seldom described by medical writers from their own experience; he has therefore here presented us with a pretty full description of it, chiefly drawn from patients of the Bath hospital. The cause of this complaint the author supposes to be the sudden application of cold to the body, when in a heated state. In the cure of this affection, Dr. F. thinks the Bath waters, externally applied, to be of more service than any other remedy; but these, he remarks, sometimes fail. He does not think that any medicines given to assist the Bath water can be much depended upon. Mercurials, with the decoctions of the woods, of sarsaparilla, and of mezereon, have been given, but with little effect. Nor has mercury applied externally, according to the experience of this writer, afforded any advantage. The exhibition of antimony and sulphur has been attended with no better success. The tar ointment appears to have had some effect in softening the stiffness of the skin, and promoting the separation of the scaly eruption. As to the use of the Bath waters, patients are generally ordered to bathe twice or thrice a week, according to age, strength, &c. and to drink about a pint of the water daily.

Art. 19. *Case of epilepsy successfully terminated.* By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.—We meet with little of importance in this paper, for the use of *zincum vitriolatum* has long been known and recommended in cases of epilepsy.

Art. 20. *Case of imperforated anus successfully treated.* By T. Mantell, Dover, Surgeon, and C. M. S. In a letter to J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.—In this case of imperforated anus Mr. M. found it necessary to make an opening into the rectum of a pretty large size.

Art. 21. *Case of hemorrhage and purple spots, without fever, or previous illness.* By John Aikin, M. D. C. M. S. &c.—After describing this case very minutely, Dr. A. makes some observations on the nature of the disease. He thinks that this complaint does not frequently occur in the acute form; though a disposition to hemorrhage, attended with the eruption of purple spots, without fever or any other distinct disease, may often have been observed by practitioners. He supposes that nosologists have not given a sufficiently clear description of it: Cussion, however, he says, appears to have described this disease under the name of *purpura apyreta*. In his opinion of the nature of the disease he seems inclined to believe, that it depends upon a vitiated state of the fluids, independent of a debilitated condition of the solids.

Art. 22. *Case of aneurism; with the dissection.* In a letter to J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c. from W. Luxmore, of Uxbridge, Surgeon, and C. M. S.—What appeared remarkable in this case, on dissection, was that the aorta descendens formed its bifurcation uncommonly high above the kidneys; and that about two inches below this bifurcation,

on the right side, immediately over the kidney, the aneurismal tumour was situated. The kidney was also considerably diminished in its size.

Art. 23. *Two cases of hydrocephalus.* By Mr. Thomas Jameson, Surgeon in Bloomsbury, and F. M. S.—There seems little deserving of attention in these cases. They both terminated fatally, after having run nearly the same course.

Art. 24. *Experiments made on the laryngeal and recurrent branches of the eighth pair of nerves, with a view to determine the effects of the division of those nerves on the voice.* By J. Haighton.—In this very valuable memoir, the author observes, that although the subject of it has engaged the attention of physiologists from the earliest periods, there still remains a difference of opinion respecting it. The anatomists of the present time being undetermined whether the recurrent branches of the eighth pair be alone the vocal nerves, or whether the laryngeal branches of the same pair have not a considerable share in the office. After a statement of the inquiries which have been made respecting this matter, Mr. H. gives us the result of his own. Having made several experiments, by dividing the recurrent nerves of a dog, he found that the voice was destroyed; as it was likewise from the division of the trunks of the par vagum, from which they originate. From other experiments; he further concludes, that ‘the recurrent branches of the par vagum supply parts which are essentially necessary to the formation of the voice; whilst the laryngeal branches of it seem only to affect its modulation or tone.’ The author next attempted to determine ‘whether the voice, when once taken away by the division of the nerves, ever returned.’ In the dog which was the subject of this experiment, he found the voice to return after about a fortnight, but sharpened almost an octave. This inquiry, however, he promises to prosecute hereafter, and also to bring forward ‘some conjectures on the formation and modulation of the voice.’

Art. 25. *Case of a wound of the thorax; with some remarks.* By W. Norris, Surgeon to the Charterhouse, and General Dispensary, London, and F. M. S.—This paper contains the history of a case in which the patient received a wound that penetrated into the cavity of the thorax, just under the right breast. Respecting wounds of the thorax this writer thinks physiologists have erred; for he does not find that the lungs collapse on the division of the pleura, as they have supposed. From some experiments, which the author made to determine this point, he also concludes, that ‘the danger of suffocation from air being admitted between the lungs and pleura, if the wound be of a moderate size, is not much to be dreaded;’ especially ‘if the wound be quickly closed by future or other means.’ In wounds of the thorax, where the lungs are not injured, Mr. N. thinks almost all the danger arises from inflammation and its consequences.

Art. 26. *Cases of hydrophobia.* By J. Shadwell, of Brentwood, M. D. C. M. S.—In the cure of this dreadful disease little has yet been effected. Even in those cases, the author observes, where the treatment has been supposed to overcome the hydrophobia, death has ensued commonly, ‘either in a few hours after the cessation of that symptom, or, at farthest, upon the following day.’ With respect to the affection of the mind in this complaint the two cases here related furnish a striking contrast. In one, during the agony with which convulsion agitated the body, the mind retained its faculties nearly perfect; while



while in the other, sense was lost during each paroxysm. The histories of these two cases Dr. S. gives in a very clear and circumstantial manner. The practice which he recommends, and by which, he tells us, one of the patients whose cases are here stated was cured, is that of administering oil internally, and also of applying it frequently to the whole surface of the body; clysters of oil and fat mutton broth he likewise advises to be frequently injected. From a single instance of success, however, we can draw no conclusion; further trials must be made, in order to determine the advantages to be expected from this method of treating the disease.

Art. 27. *On the paracentesis.* By James Sims, M. D. &c. President of the Medical Society of London.—Dr. Sims recommends the operation of paracentesis to be performed at the *umbilicus*, by thrusting in a common lancet, until the water issues. He thinks ‘the orifice should not be large, nor should the water be forcibly pressed out, but allowed to come away just as the contraction of the integuments occasions.’ This, he supposes, a less dangerous operation than that of perforating in the usual way.

Art. 28. *Case of a laborious parturition, with the consequences.* By M. Wilkinfon, Surgeon of Sunderland.—Mr. W. in this paper relates a case, in which the woman had been forcibly delivered by means of instruments, nearly forty-one years before the time of her death; and in whom, upon dissection, the following appearances were observed. Between the rectum and vagina there was found a communication sufficient to admit one’s thumb to pass. ‘The fore part of the vagina, the posterior surface of the bladder, just below the opening of the ureters, as also the whole of the urethra, were gone, and the remaining part of the anterior surface of the vagina adhered across the os tincæ to the posterior surface; so that the os tincæ was wholly obliterated. The left fallopian tube had a tumour adhering to it about the size of a moderate golden pippin, and seemed full of fluid:’ the ovaries as well as the uterus seemed quite sound. The rectum in its internal coat appeared diseased.

Art. 29. *The histories of two cases of bronchocele.* By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.—We see nothing new in the treatment here recommended: the internal use of burnt sponge, calomel, and vegetable alkali, with the topical application of mercurial, saponaceous, and camphorated ointments, have long been generally known to be of service in cases of this kind.

Art. 30. *Of a successful termination of an omphalocele.* By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.—The common method of removing hernia, by means of the application of ice, is here recommended.

APPENDIX.—*A fistulous abscess in the urinary bladder.* By Stephen Lowdell, Surgeon, and F. M. S.—In this case the patient seemed affected with several symptoms which indicated the presence of a stone in the bladder; yet, upon opening the body after death, there was neither stone nor any calculous substance whatever found; but several pints of the same kind of matter, as that which was voided by stool, were present in the pelvis, which being removed, a portion of the colon appeared to adhere strongly to the fundus of the urinary bladder; and between them there was a communication, by an aperture large enough to admit one or more fingers. By this aperture the fecal matter passed from the colon into the pelvis and bladder.



April 3, 1786.—*Dr. Lettsom communicated the history of a case of canine appetite, with vomiting, in which 376 pounds of solid and fluid aliment were taken into the stomach in the space of six days.* By Henry Wastell, Surgeon, London.—The patient became emaciated, notwithstanding the taking of such a large quantity of food into the stomach. The recovery was accomplished by giving food boiled down to jelly, in small quantities, and frequently.

October 7, 1787.—*Mr. Pearce, Surgeon, communicated the following cases of præternatural menstruation.*—The first of these cases is that of a girl thirteen years of age, who had an ulcer on her ankle, originating from a scald, and by which alone the menstrual discharge has for several years been regularly made. The discharge is *guttatim*, and preceded by pains in the head and loins.

The second case is that of a laundress, who, in a fall down stairs, struck her loins against a pail; which brought on a large discharge of uterine blood, attended with prolapsus. After this discharge had continued a fortnight, it was suddenly stopped, by the application of cold vinegar, in consequence of which mania ensued. The mania having been removed by medical treatment, a discharge of frothy blood in copious streams, without cough or other effort, took place from the mouth and nose, which has since regularly occurred at the usual periods of menstruation, preceded by a little tumefaction of the hypogastric and lumbar regions, but without uterine evacuation. The hemorrhage, however, 'frequently occurs at other than the stated periods,' particularly when she is much fatigued.

October 27. *Dr. Squire, F.M.S. communicated the following case and dissection.*—This is the case of a middle aged gentleman, who had great pain shooting from the right ilium obliquely towards the region of the bladder, attended with great uneasiness when lying on his right side. His urine had light white coloured flakes floating in it. He had also pain at the neck of the bladder, and soreness in the urethra, with frequent attempts to make water, without being able to pass much. On opening the body, the right kidney was found enlarged to almost twice the size of the other; and on opening its pelvis, an opaque brown coloured fluid was discharged, in quantity about two tea-spoonfuls. The ureter of the same side was also considerably dilated. All the other abdominal viscera had their natural appearances.

September 15, 1788.—*Account of a rupture of the urethra, and of the solution of a catgut bougie in the bladder.* By Robert Waring Darwin, of Shrewsbury, M.D. F.R.S. and C.M.S.—Dr. Darwin, after giving an accurate history of the symptoms of this case, concludes 'that the stricture or caruncle in the urethra was the original cause of the whole disease; that by the obstruction there given to the exit of the urine, the force to exclude it became exerted more violently; and thence the part of the urethra behind the stricture became distended, till it was at length ruptured.' That 'after this, the urine was passed into the cellular membrane and dissected its way, till a large surface became ulcerated.' That 'the same efforts which were used to exclude the urine would press the matter out of this extensive ulcer; and some urine would also at times be pressed into it. Hence the matter always appeared mixed with the urine, and the smarting pain was urgent at the same time.' 'The cure of those cases, supposed to be catarrhs of the bladder, or suppurations of the prostate gland, may

may [in his opinion] be most successfully undertaken by the assiduous use of bougies of catgut, which should be gradually enlarged, till a free passage for the urine be obtained. And if any tumour from extravasated urine can be perceived and opened externally, the patient [he thinks] will be saved, and the cure facilitated.' He next relates a case of the solution of a catgut bougie in the bladder, which he observes 'furnishes us with a powerful argument in favour of the use of catgut bougies, in preference to those made of linen.'

January 1, 1788.—*The following relations, communicated in a letter to Dr. Lettsom, by Mr. Richard How, of Apsley, in Bedfordshire, were read.*—The first is that of the daughter of a clergyman, who, until she arrived at the age of thirteen years, had a very dark complexion, with hair black as jet; when she observed one morning a lock of her hair, about an inch and half in breadth, to be changed perfectly white. She had enjoyed good health before the change, and at the time had no indisposition, nor had she received any fright to which it might be attributed. Soon after this, a similar change took place on the hair of the other side of the head, which continued altering, till in about seven years the whole became white. Her complexion also underwent a similar change, and at length became perfectly fair. 'The colour of her eyes, which were black, has not undergone any alteration.' Since this remarkable change, she has not enjoyed so good a state of health as before.

The other case is that of a girl about eighteen years old, whose face was of a swarthy colour, with long dark hair on one side of her head, short frizzled and lighter on the other; her mother says her body is also of two colours, the one side very brown, the other fair: but she can give no reason for this difference.

January 11.—*The following extract of a letter from captain Cardin to Dr. Lettsom was read.*—In this extract we are informed that captain Cardin had found great advantage from the powder of ipecacuanha in the cure of dysenteries. The manner in which he administered it, in violent cases, was in the quantity of four grains of the powder in a cupful of tea, with fifteen or twenty drops of laudanum going to bed. If the patient was relieved, he afterwards reduced the quantity to three, or even to two grains night and morning.

April 7.—*Case of the humerus of a child torn from the scapula by a mill.* Communicated by Henry Gore Clough, M.D. and F.M.S. Old Compton-street, Soho.—In this very alarming case, which Dr. C. has related in a clear and perspicuous manner, the patient suffered very little from either hemorrhage or fever; but recovered in a remarkably short time by the common method of treatment.

April 7.—*Case of a man who took by mistake two ounces of nitre instead of Glauber's salt.* By William Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. and M.S. &c. Bath.—The large quantity of nitre here taken affected the patient almost immediately with great pain of the stomach, extending to his bowels. After a little time he began to vomit, but without relief, though it continued several hours. Blood was afterwards thrown up in large quantities. He had no purging after it, but on the contrary was costive. His urine was not at all affected, nor had he any pain in the urinary passages. He found some relief from taking oatmeal gruel and butter in large quantities.

September

September 15.—*Extract from a history of a sphacelated scrotum.* By John Church, M. A. Surgeon and F. M. S.—In this case of sphacelated scrotum we see nothing extraordinary, either as to the nature of the complaint, or the method of treating it.

September 15.—*The following case of pemphigus, by J. Upton, was communicated by Dr. Lettsom.*—The writer of this case of pemphigus supposes, that the application of blisters, at different intervals, will be of great service in relieving that languor and debility which generally attend this complaint.

September 29.—*A case was read to the society by Mr. Stephen Smith Ward, Surgeon, and F. M. S. of an obstruction of urine which terminated fatally, in consequence of stricture.*—On dissection the urethra in this case was found obliterated for half an inch, at the distance of two or three inches from the glans.

September 29.—*Was read, a case of calculi passing through the bladder into the rectum.* By J. Johnstone, M. D. and C. M. S. of Worcester.

October 6.—*A paper by Mr. Baker, Apothecary, and F. M. S. was read, containing various cases of fatality from the natural small-pox, in families where inoculation, when practised, had been uniformly successful: from which the following is extracted.*—In this case of natural small-pox, suppurations took place in several of the joints after the small-pox disappeared.

October 6.—*A case of an ulcer of the bladder communicating with the rectum, by Dr. Johnstone, of Worcester, was read.*—An ulcer in the rectum had evidently in this case perforated the bladder.

December 15.—*Case of a rupture of the bladder opening into the pelvis, by James Johnstone, M. D. & C. was read.*—In this case we meet with a considerable thickening, and a fleshy appearance of the substance of the bladder; and an adhesion of its forepart to the peritoneum under the *musculi recti*, nearly as high as the navel, with an aperture of an inch and an half in diameter (which had no appearance of a recent laceration) in the left side, and which opened into a cavity in that region of the pelvis, in which a large portion of urine had lodged when the bladder was full. No calculus could be found either in the bladder, or in this preternatural cavity. There was a considerable enlargement of the uterus and kidneys, and a quantity of putrid urine issued from the pelvis of each of the latter when opened.

October 13.—*A case of extraordinary diseased enlargement of the parotid and submaxillary glands, &c. was communicated by T. Cole, Surgeon and F. M. S.*—This tumour, the writer informs us, at last became of such a magnitude as to compress the trachea, œsophagus, and blood-vessels, and gradually to suffocate the patient. He also says that this tumour weighed ten pounds and a half, and contained every kind of substance which commonly fills ‘*steatoma, carcinoma, meliceris, atheroma and lepome.*’

November 10.—*Dr. Zencker's (from Berlin) observations on some species of deafness successfully treated, sent to Dr. Sims, and communicated to the Medical Society.*

November 17.—*Abstract of a case of morbus niger, by Mr. Key, Surgeon, in the Borough, communicated by Dr. Lettsom.*—This case exhibits a highly diseased state of the liver, gall bladder, kidneys, ureters, and bladder.

January



January 9, 1789.—*Abstract of a Case communicated to the Society, by Thomas Edwards, of Peckham, Surgeon.*—This was a case of sphacelation taking place on the region of the os sacrum, in which a diarrhœa, attended with hiccough, came on, and to relieve which twelve scruples of the species of scordium with opium, a mixture of chalk-julep with one hundred drops of thebaic tincture, and thirty grains of solid opium were given daily, for near a fortnight.

*Extract from a description and dissection of a diseased spermatic vein.* By Theophilus Dyson, Surgeon, and F. M. S.

Dec. 23.—*A case of encysted tumour successfully treated by electricity.* By Wm. Turnbull, A. M. Surgeon to the Eastern Dispensary, and F. M. S.—This case affords an instance of the powers of electricity in removing encysted tumours.

May 3.—*A memoir, containing a selection of cases of dropsy, effectually cured by gum guaiacum; with remarks on the superior utility of Stizolobium in worn cases.* By Richard Chamberlaine, Surgeon, of Jamaica, and C. M. S.—This writer acknowledges to have received the hint of giving gum guaiacum in dropsy from the assistant surgeon to the military hospital, South-Carolina. The author particularly mentions two cases in which this remedy was highly useful. With respect to the use of Stizolobium he relates eleven cases in which it was found singularly beneficial. He informs us that he has met with no inconvenience from the exhibition of very large doses of this remedy.

May 25.—*Cases of dropsy treated with digitalis purpurea; and of chorea sancti viti with flowers of zinc.* By John Wright, M. D. one of the Physicians to the Infirmary at Bristol, and C. M. S.—Two cases of dropsy are here detailed, in which the use of the digitalis purpurea afforded considerable advantage; but we do not find that either of the cases were perfectly removed by the remedy. The flowers of zinc have been generally found successful in the cure of chorea sancti viti by the writer of this paper; but in two cases which he has here given, it failed in performing a cure.

June 22.—*Case of strangulated hernia.* By William Livingston, M. D. C. M. S. Aberdeen.—In this case, notwithstanding the scrotum, hernial sac, and the strangulated intestine were found in a sphacelated state, and an opening formed, through which the fæces were discharged, with considerable tumefaction and tension about the abdominal ring; the patient was recovered by the use of wine and bark, together with the common dressings.

*Case of morbid retention of urine, with a description of the parts diseased, after death.* By the same.—On dissecting this body, after death, ten quarts of water were found in the cavity of the abdomen; the bladder was empty; its internal coat appeared to have been inflamed in several places, and in the centre of a livid spot in the fundus of it there was a pretty large circular hole. The prostate gland was much enlarged, and scirrhus. This diseased state of the gland, Dr. L. thinks, was the cause of the whole complaint.

July 27.—*History of a case of ascites with anasarca, relieved by the application of common oil, assisted by friction.* By William Chamberlaine, Surgeon, Secretary to the Medical Society.

August 24.—*Two dissections:* Communicated by Mr. Macmillan Jamefon, Surgeon in the Island of Jamaica.—The author of this paper supposes, that hepatitis is a more frequent disease in the West-Indies

Indies than has generally been believed. The appearances of two cases of diseased livers, on dissection, are also here related.

October 26.—*A case of angina pectoris, cured by the use of white vitriol*, communicated by William Lee Perkins, M.D. of Hampton Court.—In this case we find that opium as well as white vitriol, was administered.

November 16.—*A severe spasmodic affection, successfully treated*. By Benjamin Say, Surgeon, and C.M.S. Philadelphia.—This spasmodic affection sometimes seized the feet, at other times the legs and hands; but at last it chiefly attacked the stomach and breast of the patient. After a great variety of causes had been assigned for this disorder, and various remedies used without success, the patient was considerably relieved by the application of a truss to a scrotal hernia, with which he had been afflicted for several years.

September 14.—*The following case*, by William Luxmore, Surgeon at Uxbridge, and C.M.S.—This was a case of *genuine* Devonshire colic, which gave way to the usual remedies, but to which a complete amaurosis immediately succeeded; and this was as suddenly removed by the application of a large blister between the shoulders, and the liberal exhibition of volatiles, with valerian and strong mustard whey.

November 23.—*A paper was read to the Society*, sent by Mr. Bradford Wilmer, Surgeon at Coventry, and C.M.S.—This paper contains the history of a case of a wound in the upper part of the thigh, made by falling upon a glass vessel, and from which nearly a gallon of blood was discharged in the space of an hour. Mr. W. at first supposed the blood to flow from a branch of the crural artery; but upon making an incision into the swelled part through the muscles, he found that the blood issued from an aperture in the crural vein. In the course of the cure of this wound, the patient also suffered much from the lodgment of hardened balls of excrement in the rectum.

May 3, 1790.—*A paper was read*, written by Mr. Philip Werner, Navy Surgeon, C.M.S. and Surgeon to the British factory at Algiers, containing nine cases which occurred to him at Algiers.—We have met with nothing very extraordinary in these nine cases. The first was an ascites in a boy of ten years old, cured by giving half an ounce of cream of tartar daily dissolved in barley water. The second was a case of scrotal hernia, which from neglect became very large. The third was also a case of hernia, which caused great pain whenever reduced within the abdomen. The fourth was a case of an uncommon enlargement of the scrotum. In the fifth case the patient laboured under a hernia which had not been reduced until the 10th day. The sixth and seventh are cases of iliac passion. The eighth was a case in which stizolobium was found highly useful. The ninth was also a case of worms.

December 12.—*A case was sent to the Society* by Dr. Perfect, of Malling, C.M.S.—This was the case of a woman in whom the catamenia did not appear until she had entered her forty-seventh year.

August 2.—*History of an abdominal tumour accidentally cured*, communicated by Mr. Stephen Lowdell, Surgeon, F.M.S.—This was the case of a young lady who had a gradual enlargement of the abdomen, which suddenly disappeared after she had had the accident of being thrown out of an open chaise. The suddenness of the cure in this case, after the violent concussion arising from the fall, has induced the

writer

writer to conclude that previous to the accident the contents of the tumour of the abdomen were contained in a cyst void of any absorbents. From this case he thinks that concussive means may sometimes be employed with advantage in encysted dropsy.

March 17.—Dr. Mitford, of Pool, c.m.s. in a letter to Dr. Lettsom, communicated the following case of *feces passing through the urethra, with a dissection*.—On examining this case after death, a portion of the ileum was found adhering to the fundus of the bladder, with a slight appearance of mortification; and on dividing the inosculation, a passage was discovered from the intestine, through which the excrement might pass to the bladder.

December 6.—*A case of a fractured cranium, attended with the loss of a small portion of the brain*; communicated by William French, Surgeon, Harpur-street.

March 21, 1791.—*Case of fractured skull, (with a plate;)* by J. Blount, Surgeon, of Birmingham, and c.m.s.—The tedious process of nature in producing a substance for the scalp has led surgeons to save it as much as possible; and the case here related affords an instance of the advantage resulting from this practice; for the author in this case brought the flap of the scalp forward, and laid it ‘*in contact with the naked dura mater.*’

June 4.—*The following remarks on the bite of a mad dog*; from Dr. White, of St. Edmundsbury, to Dr. Lettsom.—After giving a brief detail of the various accidents which have lately fallen under his care, and from the recollection of four cases of hydrophobia which he has been called to in the course of his practice, the author has ventured to suggest, ‘that the virus may be exterminated by excision many days after the injury;—that the first sensible mark of its action is a pain in the injured part;—that the consequent symptoms and sensations have a much nearer relation to spasm than inflammation;—that the lymphatic system is not affected in like manner to what it is from the insertion of variolous or any other infectious matter, supposed to be carried into the habit by absorption.’ He afterwards puts the following questions: ‘Is it not probable that the virus lies dormant till the previous symptom of pain in the bitten part comes on? Might not excision and ablution afford relief at that period? May not the future progressive symptoms be produced by irregular excitement on the nervous system only? Is it absolutely impossible to give relief by excision and ablution, when the patient is afflicted with hydrophobia?’

In reviewing a former volume of these memoirs, we sufficiently expressed our opinion of the utility and advantage resulting from the publication of clinical communications; but at the same time strongly inculcated the great necessity for much cautious discrimination in their selection. We were therefore not without hopes that the society would have profited by our observations in the compilation of the present volume: but it was with considerable surprize and disappointment that we remarked in the papers composing this nearly the same neglect of judicious selection, and the same want of typographical accuracy as in the preceding volume. To us also many of the papers which have been added in the appendix, appear trifling, and might with great propriety have been omitted.

A. R.

ART.



## FINANCES OF IRELAND.

**ART. V.** *A Sketch of the Revenue and Finances of Ireland, and of the appropriated Funds, Loans, and Debt of the Nation, from their Commencement: With Abstracts of the principal Heads of Receipt and Expenditure for sixty Years, and the various Supplies since the Revolution. The whole illustrated with Charts.* By R. V. Clarendon. 4to. about 200 pages. Price 10s. boards. Dublin; Byrne; London, Lowndes. 1791.

At a period when every branch of political knowledge is cultivated with zeal, and the resources of kingdoms are become objects of the most serious inquiry, a collection and digest of all the financial regulations relative to Ireland cannot fail to excite the public curiosity.

The author observes, that, in treating of the revenue of Ireland, there can be but little occasion to notice the objects that anciently contributed to fill the treasury of its kings, no vestige of them remaining in the fiscal code of the present day. The antiquary would find it difficult to discover any thing like the public contributions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, in the history of a people destitute of trade, unacquainted with mechanic arts, 'and whose supreme monarch received cattle, and the crude materials necessary for clothing, as the tribute of his dependants.' This, however, is only to be understood of the aboriginal Irish, for at the coming over of Henry II., and even during a series of years antecedent to that period, the principal seaports were in possession of the Danes, or their descendants, who, like most of the maritime nations of the north, to a spirit of enterprise and industry added a knowledge of commerce and manufactures. Among them, we are told, 'a revenue was furnished by imposts on their exports, imports, &c. and many of their coins still to be found, afford sufficient proof of their knowledge of that great medium of trade—money.'

The revenue obtained by the first English sovereigns was very inconsiderable, arising only from the subjects within the narrow limits of the pale (or English boundary), and consisting of various branches analogous to those which composed the English revenue at that time, such as ancient demesne lands, vacant bishoprics, abbies, priories, wardship, marriage, relief, and other profits arising from the feudal tenures, prizes, purveyances and pre-emption, fines, amercements, &c. Beside these, taxes were often levied by the sole prerogative of the sovereign, on occasions of danger and emergency, such as aids, scutage, hydage, and carcuage. The scutage appears to have been established in the time of Henry II., and the receipt of it confided to the exchequer in the 18th year of his reign, being but two years after the descent of the English.

The dominion which this monarch acquired, seems to have added rather to his glory than his wealth, as the expences necessary for maintaining possession of it became exceedingly burdensome to him and many of his successors.

'For more than four hundred years [says Mr. C.], the English tenure was so precarious in Ireland, that far from deriving the advantages

advantages which in a settled state it must be so capable of affording to England, it was in general a source of expence for preserving even an acknowledgment of English authority. The revenue raised upon the subjects within the pale was consumed in their ordinary defence, and when any enterprising or ambitious chieftain made head against the English government, it became necessary to furnish supplies and remittances from England to repel the attack.

Previous to the time of Henry VII., the revenue does not appear in general to have exceeded the sum of 5000*l.* per annum. In the reign of his granddaughter, Mary, an addition of 1000*l.* per annum took place, in consequence of the tribute paid by Philip, king of Spain, for the license obtained by his subjects to fish on the northern coasts of the island.

In the time of Elizabeth, Ireland became an object of prodigious expence to the English government, for the charges of the first fifteen years amounted to 490,779*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>, while the produce of the revenue for the same period, according to sir James Ware, was but 120,000*l.* or 8000*l.* per annum. The subsidies granted by the Irish parliament in aid of the settled duties, &c., from the reign of Henry VII., consisted of a land tax of 13*s.* 6*d.* upon every 'plow land' occupied in Ireland. This was the customary rate until the 11th of James I., when the method of taxing individuals for their reputed estates was settled at the rate of four shillings in the pound upon land, and two shillings and eightpence in the pound upon goods. A subsidy upon the 'temporalty' was generally granted for 40, 41, or 45,000*l.*; the amount of the sums paid by the clergy is not here ascertained. During the government of lord Strafford, 578,000*l.* were raised by subsidies, and these were increased by Charles I. by means of 'his simple ordinance.' On account of the distracted situation of the government after the decollation of that monarch, it is difficult, if not utterly impossible, to make any just statement of the various taxes, or even an enumeration of the objects which composed them.

Upon the restoration, the various duties levied by the late usurped powers were ordered to be continued until a settlement should be made by parliament. Some temporary imposts indeed took place, but they immediately ceased upon the establishment of the hereditary revenue.

The produce of the various *items* composing the hereditary revenue was found shortly after its establishment to be fully adequate to the expences of government, and Charles II. was accordingly enabled to accomplish the favourite wish of his heart—that of being rendered independent of parliament: after having obtained this, he never suffered another to meet in Ireland during his reign.

The necessities of James II. obliged him to convoke that formidable body. This assembly, which did not contain more than six protestant members, was entirely at the devotion of the monarch; a monthly subsidy of 20,000*l.* was granted upon land, and the king, by virtue of his *prerogative royal*, levied an equal

equal sum upon chattels ; ‘ after which he was put upon the wretched expedient of obtruding a base coin, five pounds of which, by nominal value, was not intrinsically worth above four pence.’

After the elevation of William and Mary, the expences of the government considerably exceeded the revenue. A parliament was therefore assembled in 1692, after an interval of twenty-six years. A supply of 70,000*l.* was voted, and certain duties granted to raise this sum ; these were the commencement of what is at present known by the name of *additional duties*, having been given in aid of the hereditary revenue. In the session of 1695, it appears from the report of the committee of accounts, that the intire product of the revenue, from the fifth of June, 1690, to the twenty-sixth of September, 1692, amounted to no more than 275,550*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.*  $\frac{3}{4}$ , which is little more than one third part of what it had been farmed at in 1678.

An odious *poll tax* was first granted during the reign of William III., and various acts passed for the avowed purpose of preventing the manufactures of Ireland from entering into competition with those of Great Britain.

At Midsummer, 1710, the revenue appears to have exceeded the expences by the sum of 71,649*l.* 7*s.* 11*d.*  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

On the accession of George I., the revenue again seems to have fallen below the expenditure. A considerable decrease (14,516*l.* 19*s.* 3*d.*  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) took place in the civil establishment in 1717. By a report of the committee of accounts, it appears that the nett produce of the hereditary revenue and additional duties, for one year and nine months, ending Lady-day 1719, amounted to 805,015*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.*  $\frac{3}{4}$  : and that the charges of the establishment, and other expences of government for the same period, amounted to 793,658*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*  $\frac{1}{4}$ . It is evident, however, that a considerable *deficit* took place in the revenue soon after : for the two years, ending Lady-day, 1723, appear only to have produced 939,619*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*  $\frac{1}{2}$ , while the ordinary charge of the establishment, and other expences of government, amounted to 958,507*l.* 10*s.* 7*d.*  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

On the demise of George I., the duties, &c. were continued to his successor in the same manner as during the preceding reign.

It appears, that the nett produce of the hereditary revenue for the two years ending Lady-day, 1727, was

The poundage, &c.	—	—	—	£.671,747	18	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
				7,330	12	2

This afforded an increase of 53,942*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.*  $\frac{1}{2}$  over the produce of the two last years of the preceding reign.

In a report brought in two years after, the nett produce of the hereditary revenue, &c. for the two years ending Lady-day 1729, is stated at

The charge of the establishments, &c. for the same period, are reckoned at	—	—	—	889,351	4	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
So that there seems to have been a deficiency in the revenue of	—	—	—	982,710	4	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
And a decrease from the produce of the two preceding years of	—	—	—	93,358	19	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
				72,570	9	3 $\frac{1}{2}$

In



In the first session of the reign of George III., the additional duties granted to George II. were continued.

In 1773 it was found necessary to increase the revenue by the imposition of new additional duties, by statutes passed in the 23 and 24 Geo. III., viz. 4l. 13s. 4d. per ton on French wines, 6l. per ton on Portugal ditto, &c. In 1777 there was a farther increase of the additional duties, viz. 6d. a gallon on foreign spirits, except those imported from the British colonies; 6d. upon brandy, geneva, and other spirits imported; and 4d. upon rum from the British colonies.

In 1779 the duties on spirits were consolidated, and for the encouragement of agriculture 2s. per barrel was laid upon all wheat except British, subject however to certain regulations.

In 1781 the several additional duties on wine, &c. were consolidated, and the spirit duties, &c. transferred to the loan fund; in 1783 the duties upon the importation of beer, ale, and porter, were also consolidated.

In 1785 the famous commercial propositions were presented to the parliament of Ireland; but the minister, who could not procure a greater majority than that of nineteen members, abandoned the project. We are told, however, 'that, although the expected advantages were not obtained, the taxes, which must be deemed the earnest of those advantages, still remain.' These were laid upon beer, ale, and porter, imported; East India goods, silks, and chocolate, romalls, hops, vinegar, china, &c.

In consequence of the exertions of the commons of Ireland, in 1779 the colony trade was extended to that kingdom; it therefore became necessary to revise and alter the duties upon the articles of colonial produce imported into Ireland. A commercial treaty having taken place in 1787 between Great Britain and France, the Irish parliament made an alteration in the duties on wines, linens, &c. produced or manufactured in the French dominions in Europe.

In 1788 an alteration took place in the tobacco duties, by which they were brought more into the form of an excise, and the duty upon four wheeled carriages was raised one fourth. In 1789 the additional duties were further continued, with the addition of a duty of 10s. per ton upon the export of manure, 'which used to be carried away as ballast, to the great injury of agriculture.'

We have followed Mr. C. as closely as the nature of our work would admit, and endeavoured to compress his statements into the shortest possible compass. We shall conclude the present article with an account of the income and expenditure of Ireland for the year ending Lady-day, 1790, which is the latest period to which he refers.

INCOME.				£.	s.	d.
Gross produce of the hereditary revenue				710,369	14	11
Ditto additional duties	—	—	—	602,083	14	3
Making together the ordinary revenue				1,312,453	9	2
Gross produce of the stamp duties	—			62,377	15	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto, post office	—	—	—	46,419	16	0
Ditto, appropriated duties	—	—	—	274,067	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Gross total				1,695,318	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Deduct amount of drawbacks on goods exported				112,451	15	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Nett amount raised upon the taxes of Ireland, independent of local taxes	—	—	—	1,582,866	4	8
Deduct expence of collection, bounties, premiums, &c.	—	—	—	473,489	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Clear amount which passes into the treasury				1,109,376	12	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Add poundage fees, &c.	—	—	—	26,909	8	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Four shillings tax on absentees salaries, &c. nett				5,677	10	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Casual receipt at the treasury	—	—	—	6,004	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Amount issuable from the treasury	—			1,147,967	11	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Deduct nett produce of the appropriated funds				199,184	3	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
Nett sum applicable to the current expences				948,783	8	0 $\frac{1}{2}$

EXPENDITURE.				£.	s.	d.
Nett charge of the civil list	—	—	—	207,808	19	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
Ditto, military list	—	—	—	535,086	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto, extra charges, civil and military (exclusive of 200,000 l. paid for lottery prizes, and 20,000 voted for militia,	—			323,080	14	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
Total amount of expences				1,065,975	14	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Deduct sum applicable to discharge thereof per contra	—	—	—	948,783	8	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Deficiency in the unappropriated revenue to answer the current expences	—			117,192	6	3

It is a matter worthy of remark, that the gross produce of the revenue of Great Britain for 1788, was collected on an average at 7 $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, while that of Ireland for the year ending Lady-day, 1789, cost no less than 17l. 6s. 8d. per cent.

#### POLITICS. POLITICAL OECONOMY.

ART. VI. *Truth and Reason, against Place and Pension; being a candid Examination of the Pretensions and Assertions of the Society held at the Crown and Anchor, and of similar Associations in various Parts of the Metropolis. Addressed to John Reeves, Esq. and his Associates.* Svo. Second Edition. 28 pages. Price 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

MR. REEVES, who holds many, and as has been said, some *secure* places under the crown, is here ironically complimented on his late *disinterested* exertions.

After several pointed, and some successful, attacks on the addresses that have lately issued from the society of the Crown and Anchor tavern, the author of this pamphlet, who subscribes himself 'a friend to the constitution,' concludes as follows:

'We charge you as the enemies of that constitutional fabric which you profess to prop and preserve, while we boast ourselves to be its best supporters \*. It is your endeavour to continue it in deformity; to add to its tottering state, and consequently to impel its growing decay: it is ours to underbuild it substantially, to remove its rotten buttresses, to repair its bulges, and render it thoroughly drop-dry. You desire to perpetuate the patches in the garment, to retain the rags and filth of the body politic: we wish to wash, to purify, and give it a new coat—but off the old piece.

'We remind your employers, that the will of the majority ought to form the constitution of every country; nothing else can afford stability and peace; for as the end of all governments is the good of the people, and the strength of government must lie in the consent of the people, (and this it was that gave birth to the maxim of *vox populi, vox Dei*) the remedy for all their terrors and apprehensions is in their own hands.

'If the minister wishes to form a powerful phalanx against the external enemies of our constitution, the most certain way must be, to restore every man his influence and interest in the government. Let him be just within the empire, and he needs to fear no foes from without. Let him honestly meet the general will, if he wishes to prevent those commotions which too often and too suddenly arise from stifled discontents. Let him re-establish the people in their long lost rights, and constitutional societies would exist no longer. The merited affection of the governed, is the only firm foundation of all human governments.'

ART. VII. *A seasonable Publication, in two Parts.* By the Rev. Richard Tapprell. 8vo. 48 pages. Price 2s. Dilly. 1792.

PART I. of this pamphlet contains observations on the origin, and an enumeration of the advantages arising out of a wise and good government. In it also are pointed out and inculcated the superiority of the English constitution, and the duties which subjects owe to their lawful sovereign.

PART II. contains reasons for the revolution that has occurred in France, and against a similar revolution in England.

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“ “ It being the interest as well as the intention of the people, to have a fair and equal representation, whoever brings it nearest to that, is an undoubted friend to, and establisher of the government, and cannot miss the consent and approbation of the community.” Locke, c. 13. sect. 158.



While Mr. T. contends against the policy and the justice of adopting violent measures, he allows that the constitution of this kingdom is not perfect; and, after ridiculing those who declaim against improvement 'in particulars, from the imperfection in generals,' asks what his reader would think of the following syllogism: 'I know myself to be very imperfect, but I know that all other men are imperfect also; therefore I ought to be satisfied with my present imperfections, and cheerfully remain as I am.'

The following passage contains some animadversions on certain grievances experienced by dissenters.

'Truth and candor must allow that liberty is not completely possessed by dissenters in this country. It is true, the legislature allows them to worship in their own way, but at the same time it lays them under several disabilities. I hope I shall be pardoned for saying, that, according to my best views of the subject, dissenters of character, talents, and property, are as eligible to offices of trust and influence in the state, as churchmen of the same description.—And I also believe farther, that dissenters have, in nature and reason, as much right to *marry* among themselves, as they have to transact their own business on the exchange or in the counting house—as much as to buy and sell in their own shops, or to cultivate and reap the produce of their own fields. Were this right allowed universally, there would be a greater appearance of consistency among us than there now is, for that worthy and respectable set of people called quakers, do as they ought, enjoy this privilege; and Roman catholics also are permitted to exercise it, while to all the dissenters in the kingdom beside, it is forbidden.

'I am not blinder to these things than others; but I wish not to contend about them. At the same time, I consider the conduct of many of the members of the establishment as being highly imprudent, in taking such steps as tend unnecessarily, and unreasonably, to wound the feelings of their neighbours who dissent from them. If any churchman is offended with me because I am a dissenter, I have as much right and reason to be offended with him because he is a churchman; and a Roman catholic might step in thirdly, and quarrel with us both, because we are not papists.'

ART. VIII. *A Charge given to the grand Jury of the Hundreds of Kirton and Skirbeck, in the Parts of Holland, in the County of Lincoln, at Epiphany Sessions, held at Boston, 14th of January, 1793, concerning the Standard Measure of Corn, and concerning seditious Publications.* By Samuel Partridge, CL. M. A. Chairman of the said Sessions. With an Admonition to the Keepers of Inns and Alehouses. Printed for the Benefit of the French Refugee Clergy. 8vo. 32 pages. Price 1s. Nicol. 1793.

With respect to the former of the two objects of this charge mentioned in the title, the learned chairman states the purport of the most material acts of parliament for establishing one measure of corn throughout the kingdom, and recommends that each parish be provided with a bushel sealed as the acts direct.

second point, the prevention of sedition, he advises the reduction of the number of ale-houses, as 'the deplorable source of most of the disorders and tumults, vices and crimes, poverty and poor rates, in the kingdom.' Mr. P. concludes the charge, as usual, by contrasting the condition of France with that of Great Britain, and exhorting the inhabitants of this country to a peaceable and cheerful submission to the laws.

ART. IX. *The present State of the British Constitution, deduced from Facts.* By an Old Whig. 8vo. 28 pages. Price 6d. Jordan. 1793.

THIS 'old whig' introduces himself to the reader by a long and elaborate display of the *theoretical* beauty and perfection of our constitution.

'But [adds he] while theory informs us that we are free, and in confirmation of her doctrine points to three estates so happily equipoised, and forming so goodly a system of mutual counter-action, experience answers that there is a baneful disease called *influence*, which has unaccountably crept in, and which, after having gradually destroyed the vigour of our constitution, is now actually preying upon its vitals. Hence the majority of the commons are no longer freely chosen by the suffrages of the people; a borough is transferred with as much publicity, and as little ceremony, from one proprietor to another, as a common freehold; the price of a seat in parliament is as well known, and as arithmetically calculated, as the value of land; and even men who have respectable characters to lose, are not ashamed to employ the most sordid arts of venality without the pains of concealment in the ignominious traffic. And what is still worse, this confederacy is far more pernicious to civil liberty, than even those of Poland and Venice, since *there*, in case of any violent abuse of power, the people have the remedy of bringing their oppressors to justice from their notoriety; but in a country where the criminality is divided among many, is sanctioned by custom, is fortified by prejudice, and operates without the risk of responsibility, the condition of the bulk of the nation is indeed hopeless.'

After these, and other similar observations, the author proceeds to examine the composition of the two houses of parliament, and begins with the house of peers, which he contends to be very different from what the constitution intended, viz. 'a controlling and judicial assembly.' He asserts the following to be a just statement:

Peers holding offices at pleasure	- - -	34
Bishops hitherto capable of translation	- - -	26
Admirals in H. of L.	- - -	4
Generals, and colonels	- - -	18
		<hr/>
Two thirds of these are reckoned the steady supporters of ministry	- - - }	32
		<hr/>
Deduct 66 from 259, remainder—193.		66
N n 3		'Though

‘ Though the remaining 193 peers cannot be said to follow any profession, yet when we view the long lists of governments, embassies, fleets, regiments, rangerhips, stars, and garters for themselves—the posts of lady of the bed-chamber, maid of honour, sempstresses, or clear-starcher for their wives and daughters—the sure promotions in the army, navy, and offices of government for their sons—the comfortable appointments they aim at for a pimping valet, or a cast off mistress—we may perhaps, without any considerable rashness, expect that no very violent degree of opposition will be met with from two thirds of the number.

‘ Deduct one third of 193, remainder	-	-	-	-	129
Placemen, bishops, &c.	-	-	-	-	66

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Deduct 195 from 259, remainder—64.

‘ From the whole statement I conclude, that in the house of peers, the minister may at all times expect a majority of more than three to one.’

Our author insists too, that the ‘ ostensible places’ enjoyed by members of the house of commons (many of which are held at pleasure) are upwards of 90; that the pensions on the civil list amount to 100,000 l. a year; that out of 558, more than 400 are returned in England alone for rotten boroughs, or for places under the patronage of individuals, and that ‘ of the mutilated representation with which Scotland is insulted, the condition is even worse.’ It is impossible to peruse these calculations (which we hope are somewhat exaggerated) without the most poignant grief.

We shall conclude this article with an ‘ instance’ quoted, in order to evince ‘ the nature of the civil list:—One of the daughters of George the second, it is said, requested her father’s permission to have her apartment papered. The king answered, “ he could not afford it.” “ Not afford it! the expence could not exceed ten pounds.” “ That might be (returned the king) in the case of a common person, but I assure you it would cost me one thousand.”

‘ The articles of the account might probably stand thus :

‘ To A. B. Esq. M. P. for the borough of C., surveyor	}	£.300
of the princesses apartment		
To Mr. J. D. deputy surveyor of the princesses apartment for himself and two clerks	}	150
To Mr. F. K. chief paperer		
Deputy paperer	-	50
To R. W. Esq. member for the county of N. comptroller	}	300
of the works in the princesses apartment, for himself		
Board wages for twelve servants for a month	-	40
Paper, paste, and a workman for four days	-	10
		<hr/>
		Total 1000

ART. X. *An Appeal to Men, against Paine’s Rights of Man. In two Parts*; by William Lewelyn, Dissenting Minister at Leominster. Part the 1st. 8vo. 95 pages. Price 1s. Evans, 1793.

WE



WE are told, that Mr. P. has advanced principles, in his book entitled 'the Rights of Man,' at once 'immoral and ruinous.' It is also asserted—1. that mixed government, uniting monarchy, aristocracy, and republican principles and influences together, is the only true government;—and, 2. that no other can exist.

The following will perhaps be considered as a curious passage:

'You tell us, [says he, addressing himself to Mr. P.,] that the vocabulary of Adam contains no such animal as a duke.—Animal! O fie!—great sinner! none such to be found there! Astonishing! Where have you been? What vocabulary have you read? I can find many dukes there, and can shew you how to do the same. Trace the line of Adam down to Genesis seventeenth chapter, and you will find it said by the Creator, that Abraham should be the father of kings: that his son Ishmael should be the father of twelve princes: and in chapter thirty-six, that his grandson Esau, had a very numerous family of dukes, registered by their names: and there had been many dukes in Seir before he settled there. Is this ignorance real or affected? You say that no ideas of any sort connect themselves with these titles in the mind. How can you say so? Every one with the word king, connects the idea of one who holds the reins of government, and sits at the helm to direct the motions of the state. Prince and duke, both signify leaders and conductors of others. Lord signifies headship, and superintendency. But I need not inform, for you do, and must know these things.' Having given one quotation, by way of answer to Mr. P.'s doctrine, in respect to titles, we shall conclude this article with another concerning equality.

'Equality, in a word, is a wild and wicked thought, published and founded to foment tumult and rage; and is a thing impossible in nature. For if Adam and Eve had been equal, there would have been neither husband nor wife: for she that is equal to her husband, is no wife; and her husband is no husband. If the father and son are equal, there is neither father nor son. If the master, and the apprentice, and servant are equal, then there is neither master, apprentice, nor servant. And if the officer and soldier are equal, there is neither officer nor soldier. Equality is unavoidably therefore, the dissolution, and abolition of human society. Thus much about republicanism as founded in man's equality.'

ART. XI. *A Letter to Citizen Paine*. 8vo. 16 pages. Price 2d. Williams, Strand. 1793.

MUCH ridicule is here attempted to be thrown upon 'citizen Paine,' for discovering to our nation and the whole world, 'that we, though happy, and nominally free, are in reality slaves.'

ART. XII. *Village Politics*. Addressed to all the Mechanics, Journey-men, and Day Labourers in Great Britain. By William Chip, a Country Carpenter. 12mo. 7th Edit. 24 pages. Price 2d. or 25 for 3s. Rivingtons. 1793.

THIS is a dialogue (written by Miss Hannah More) between Jack Anvil the blacksmith, and Tom Hod the mason. Tom, who wants 'liberty, equality, and the rights of man,' is, like many of his countrymen,

trymen, impatient for some beneficial change in behalf of the laborious and industrious part of the community.

On the other hand, his adversary, who is sometimes *hard pushed* for an answer, says 'that we have a king so loving, that he wou'd not hurt the people if he cou'd; and *so kept in*, that he cou'd not hurt the people if he wou'd. We have as much liberty as can make us happy, and more trade and riches than allows us to be good. We have the best laws in the world, *if they were more strictly enforced*; and the best religion in the world, *if it were but better followed*. While old England is safe, I'll glory in her, and pray for her, and when she is in danger, I'll fight for her, and die for her.'

ART. XIII. *The Case of the Sugar Colonies.* 8vo. 97 pages. Price 2s. Johnson. 1792.

AFTER Columbus had discovered the West India Archipelago, towards the close of the fifteenth century, the immediate object of the first adventurers was gold, which they expected to find in great abundance. The more slow, but certain means of acquiring wealth, by agriculture, were entirely overlooked until about the year 1625, when some natives of England and France took possession of the island of St. Christopher, and set about planting tobacco, ginger, cotton, &c.

It was not however until 1660, that the sugar cane began to be cultivated in Surinam, whence it was soon after transplanted to Barbadoes, and, suddenly enriching the planters, became a favourite object of culture, and the staple product of the islands. Yet, notwithstanding this, all the sugar annually raised in our colonies did not exceed 3000 hogheads in the reign of Charles II. of which, one third only were consumed in England, and the remainder exported to foreign countries.

But the use of negro slaves, who were introduced into the islands by the inconsistent zeal of Da Cafas, becoming more extended, we find towards the close of that century the produce augmented to 40,000 hogheads, one half of which were consumed in Britain; and from that time to the present, so great has been the increase of the national prosperity, that though above 150,000 hogheads are now imported annually into this country and Ireland, not more than 12,000 are re-exported to foreign parts.

'In order to encourage the enterprises of our own subjects, and of course to advance the prosperity of the mother country, the produce of the British islands alone, has been allowed to be consumed in England; for if that of foreign plantations has not been formally excluded, the excess of duties with which it is charged, has, as it was intended to do, acted so powerfully as to occasion its virtual prohibition; and the British islands have been left in the undisturbed possession of the supply of the British market for the space of near a century and a half.'

It is lamented by our author, that, after so long an enjoyment of an exclusive trade, which is thought to have grown into a right by prescription, a series of measures should have been lately adopted, which seem to indicate a disposition in this country, adverse to the interest of the colonies, while principles have at the same time been advanced, that intimate a design to annul the system on which the West India islands were first settled, and by the continuance of which, it is here asserted, they can alone flourish.

It is also contended, that an article in the treaty of commerce with France, relative to the importation of brandy, is highly prejudicial to the colonies, but neither this, nor certain heavy duties, bear any proportion to the danger apprehended from speculative writers, who have preached up not only an abstinence from sugar, but an entire abolition of the slave trade. In addition to this, it has become the favourite plan of the present day, to encourage the culture of the cane in our oriental possessions, and to import its produce into Europe, a measure that would infallibly ruin the manufacture of sugar in the West India colonies, which is here considered 'to be to all intents and purposes, as much a national manufacture as those of Birmingham, Manchester, or Norwich.'

ART. XIV. *Remarks on the New Sugar-Bill, and on the National Compacts respecting the Sugar Trade, and Slave Trade.* 8vo. 106 pages. Price 2s. Johnson. 1792.

It is enacted by the late bill, which passed the house of commons in May 1792, and was soon after converted into a law, that whenever the average price of raw and clayed sugar, sold in the port of London, exceeds in the six weeks which respectively precede either the middle of February, June, or October, the amount of 65s. for the hundred weight (the duty of 15s. thereon included), the draw-back on raw sugar exported to foreign parts is immediately to cease during four months, and the bounty on *refined* sugar to cease during a like term, but commencing after the interval of a month. This statute, which is evidently founded on the system of the existing corn-laws, is meant merely as an experiment, and it is contended here, that the existence of any regulation whatever is highly prejudicial.

Since the conclusion of the American war, and a propagation of the idea, that the East Indies can furnish us with sugar at reduced prices, a considerable number of persons, and among these, we are told, may be included several members of administration, have at once disputed the utility of the sugar islands, and started doubts as to their claims. Notwithstanding this, it is strenuously contended, that a compact exists between the mother country and the colonies, 'which approaches to the nature of that taking place between the divinity and man; for which there are no parchments, no witnesses, no sanctions, to produce, but simply the solemn declaration of a power having in view the happiness of the whole, and possessed of all the necessary authority for enforcing it.'

If ever an abolition of the slave trade be determined upon, it is insisted that a compensation should be immediately held out, and the following regulations are suggested as necessary to be adopted on the part of Great Britain: 1. a continuance of the monopoly of the British market; 2. an exemption from new burdens; 3. a relaxation of the laws prohibitive of an unrestrained intercourse with America; 4. the introduction of indented servants.

'Europeans, for various reasons, are out of the question; and at present, it may be a critical matter to attempt the search of indented servants or freemen in Africa; but, without speaking also of the *Hindoos*, is it not perfectly practicable to obtain a number of *Chinese* fit for the purpose? The Chinese are much given to expatriate; they are an ingenious,



genious, a laborious and frugal people; they understand how to relieve the inconveniences and add to the enjoyments of a hot climate; they would serve not only as domestic servants, but as tradesmen and superintendants; they are to be found in every quarter of the *East-India islands*, wherever an European factory is established; they are not afraid of crossing the sea, which they frequent in the company's service; and before many years elapse, it will be found easy perhaps to have prevailed upon an amount of one or two hundred thousand of them, of different sexes, to migrate to our islands.'

' 5. The islands may be essentially served, also, by the introduction of various plants. The bread fruit will be a noble present, and the various spice trees, a politic one: the several species of bamboo will not be without their use; and the introduction of eastern fruits might add to the temptation in favour of residence in the islands. Perhaps it might not be superfluous to make trial of a new species of the *sugarcane*, of which there are several ascertained, though one only is known to our islands; the whole stock of what we possess (if we are to pay attention to learned botanists) being to be considered as various parts of one identical plant, in consequence of having been propagated from stems and roots, instead of seeds.

' 6. Among other new importations, useful animals should not be forgotten; whether for labour as the eastern bullock, or for food, or other serviceable purposes.—These several means of relief could not be very costly, but might prove highly efficacious, and contribute to the benefit of others besides the actual sufferers, as well as to the ornament and reputation of our age and nation.—Indemnities of a more direct kind, must be left to the justice and generosity of the British nation, when a proper period shall arrive for considering this important subject.'

ART. XV. *The Right in the West-India Merchants to a double Monopoly of the Sugar Market of Great Britain, and the Expediency of all Monopolies examined.* 8vo. 90 pages, Price 2s. Debrett. 1793.

THE exclusive right of the West India planters to supply Great Britain with sugar, is here examined and denied.

' The West Indians [says the author], in fact, have hitherto reaped a greater share of the benefits of this implied contract than the parent state. They have held possession of the best, and for some years past, the most considerable market in Europe, by means of an almost prohibitory duty on foreign sugars, and of a drawback of the full duty on raw, and a bounty equal to that duty on all their manufactured sugar exported to other markets.

' Under such encouragement can it be wondered at, that West India cultivation has been actively prosecuted, and with so much success. The sugar islands have ever been the first anxious care of government, on an apprehended rupture with the maritime powers; their security, the prominent feature in every treaty of peace; sacrifices have been made in the east and elsewhere, to obtain back less important acquisitions made from us in the West Indies \*. Our expences in defence of the latter, in time of war,

have and ever must be enormous; and have hitherto been entirely paid for by taxes on the subjects at home. Our peace establishments for the islands are considerable. The pay of land and sea forces, and charges of stores and fortifications, are all defrayed by this country.

‘But the most important advantages which the West Indians have reaped from their connexion with this country, are the credit and capitals they have borrowed from Great Britain. Without these, no considerable works could have been erected; no cultivation of their sterile rocks have been forced, at such an enormous and unnecessary expence. Without such assistance, the sugar trade of America, it is more than possible, might have been confined to its congenial southern continent, and the most extensive of its islands; and the cultivation of the cane have been peaceably carried on by the native inhabitants of the soil, to the increase, instead of the destruction of the human race.’

After recapitulating the great obligations the planters lie under to Great Britain, it is contended, that the dependencies in the East and West Indies are equally entitled to the fostering care and protection of the parent state, and to every assistance and encouragement compatible with justice and impartiality. The idea lately propagated, ‘that admitting the East Indies to a share in the sugar trade, will be the ruin of the West India colonies,’ is treated as visionary and chimerical, and the planters and their friends are exhorted to consider the danger of enforcing their claim to a double exclusive monopoly, lest the legislature should be induced, not only to cancel that of the East India company, ‘whose very existence implies one of the most extensive and unqualified monopolies of which history gives any example,’ but to abolish ‘every other implied or chartered monopoly, which exists but ‘to stunt the industry’ or to cramp the capitals of the commercial interest in every part of the British empire.’

This seems to have been intended as an answer to the two former articles.

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INDIA AFFAIRS.

ART. XVI. *Three Letters addressed to a Friend in India, by a Proprietor, principally on the Subject of importing Bengal Sugars into England.* 8vo. 88 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1793.

It is contended, in these letters, that the India company are already in possession of exclusive privileges which many deem injurious to the public, and that it would be gross impolicy to invest them with the power of converting the sugar trade into a monopoly. An equalization of duties is deemed both unnecessary and impolitic; ‘unnecessary, because the East India company can bring sugars to market with a profit subject to the present high duties, as long as it can be for the general interest of the nation, that they should so do; and impolitic, because the East India company would totally ruin the West India islands if they can import sugars to any extent for which a demand can be found.

¶ After

‘After these declarations, you will expect from me at least some proofs of what I advance, and those proofs are to be found, as I have already said, in the report itself. You will there see it admitted, that the freight can be reduced *more than one half!* and you will see an account of profit and loss on sugars imported from Bengal, which shews a profit of 1270l. 10s. on an invoice of 4663l. 16s. This surely is a very handsome advantage; it exceeds 27 per cent. and if the East India company gained as much upon their trade in general, they would at this day have a very different statement of their affairs to submit to the public.’

ART. XVII. *A Letter to the Proprietors of East India Stock. By Mr. J. Fiott of London, Merchant. To which is annexed [a] Copy of Mr. Alderman Le Mesurier's Protest against the Contract for Shipping, entered into by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, for the Seasons 1792, 1793. 8vo. 16 pages. Price 6d. Richardson. 1793.*

It having been affirmed by some of the directors, at the general court assembled in May last, for the express purpose of deliberating on ‘shipping affairs,’ that *public contract* was the practice of the court, and the same assertion having been made in June, Mr. Fiott pledged himself at this latter period to put these assertions to the proof. He accordingly determined to offer new ships of their own size, built under their own inspection, commanded by their own officers, and in every respect conformable to all their regulations, that in case the Directors did not accept of the lowest tender, under such circumstances, they might be left without excuse.

‘I fulfilled this pledge [says he] in June last, on their advertising for tenders of ships *from any persons, &c.* Mine were at 18l. per ton to China, when the lowest of other tenders were at 20l. per ton to China, and to other parts in proportion. After a secret conference held by the two chairs with the old owners, it was finally agreed, to take the ships of the old owners as follows: the lowest, at 19l. 10s. per ton to China for large ships, 23l. per ton to China for the small, and so in proportion for other voyages, while mine at 18l. per ton to China, as abovementioned, were rejected.’

Mr. F. has had a long, and rather an unsuccessful contest with the shipping interest in the India company: but if not advantageous to himself, this circumstance has been eminently serviceable to the interests of the proprietors, as the price for peace freight in August 1783, when the competition first commenced, was 33l. and is now reduced to 21l. 5s. per ton, so that, according to the calculation now before us, a saving of no less than 387,750l. has been already effected, and this we are told, may be made to amount to 495,000l. per annum. Mr. Paul Le Mesurier in his protest contends, that the company pay 100,000l. per annum more than the service requires, and thinks that ‘the illicit trade of India with Europe and America’ will flourish until this very essential reduction shall have taken place.

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MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. XVIII. *Letters on the Female Mind, its Powers and Pursuits. Addressed to Miss H. M. Williams, with particular Reference to her Letters from France.* In two Volumes. 12mo. Price 6s. sewed. Hookham. 1793.

WHETHER this production be dictated by male jealousy, or female envy, we cannot with certainty decide, because no name is annexed to it, by which we can determine the sex of the writer. However, as it is written in the character of a woman, we must take it up as the most probable conjecture, that it is the production of some female, who, finding herself incapable of emulating the merit of those of her own sex, who have of late appeared with such deserved applause in the field of philosophy, is resolved if possible to strip them of the honours they have so justly obtained, by attempting to prove, that every effort to acquire intellectual distinction is a feeble struggle against nature, which can only terminate in ridicule and disgrace.

In direct opposition to the high claims which have of late been so boldly made, and so ably supported by several female authors, this writer maintains a difference of sex in intellectual powers. That women are not designed for the exertion of intense thought, is inferred from the effect which it produces on the countenance and the features. Thus they are cut off at one stroke from all abstract inquiries, and sent back to trifle in the fields of sentiment and fancy, whence they are for ever to look up with despair to the superior region of intellect, as the appropriate domain of the lords of the creation.

In a catalogue of the studies which this inquisitor expressly prohibits to women, the two principal articles are divinity and politics, doubtless, that the sex may modestly disclaim all interference with the management of the world, in two of the most important concerns of human beings, the care of society, and the care of the soul. The subject of politics she places at the head of the climax of unsuitness for female study. And the great offence committed by Miss Williams, has been, that she has ventured to write letters on the politics of France. Or rather perhaps the offence has consisted in expressing, with so much honest ardour, the joy she felt on witnessing the first emancipation of a nation from the yoke of despotism. That this is, in the present writer's opinion, an unpardonable sin, appears from the whole drift of her work. A professed enemy to the propagation of the principles of liberty, she undertakes to trace with a prophetic pen the effects which our present passion for liberty is likely to produce, particularly with respect to the fair sex. Among these, she conceives it to be one of the most fatal, that women will henceforth assert a degree of liberty entirely contrary to the divine mandate, and, becoming too proud to obey, will affect to rule *vi et armis*. Ashamed of such daring presumption in that part of the human species who were born to obey, our author thus pursues the phantom her imagination has raised.

Vol.

Vol. I. p. 85.—‘How then is that liberty, that divine emanation which every rational being ought to admit and to enjoy—how is it improved! Man disdains to be shackled by custom: woman is confessed his equal: to cultivate the understanding is surely not only the most innocent, but the most laudable of all pursuits. Let me read; Nurse, take Mary away. No, replies nurse, I have learnt that we are all equal; to be confined to a place or employment is slavery, to which the dignity of human nature ought not to submit; take care of Mary yourself.—I will not be taken care of, cries Miss Mary; to be guarded is to be a prisoner, &c. &c. Query, who now is the slave?

‘Let us suppose another instance rather less innoxious than the former, but not at all less probable. Miss Mary, at the age of fifteen, well bedecked with gewgaw accomplishments, and well read in the system of liberty, marries, because she has a right to chuse for herself, her father’s footman; for it is not every young lady that has *virtue* enough to run away with her music-master. In a little time, when the bustle of a foolish action is over, she begins to be convinced she has acted unwisely, or rather to think she was *unfortunate* in her choice: her understanding, somewhat matured as her accomplishments are forgotten, she perceives there are certain good things in the world not quite so contemptible as she had fancied them. The comforts that money purchases she, almost ashamed to be convinced, confesses to herself alone, are comforts; the respect paid to the husbands of some women, and consequently to themselves, and the contumelious neglect in which she sits down with her husband, are compared, and rendered in the comparison agonising by what she suffers at home from his brutality and ignorance. The goddess of Liberty waves her cap over her brow, and she perceives that, however shackled by absurd laws, which men are still too selfish to have abrogated, she has a right to transfer the affections of her heart, and that even her prudence and good sense cannot be called in question, if the transfer is made to a more worthy object. She sacrifices to the goddess with all the sincerity and enthusiasm of devotion and bigotry; she is condemned even by those she had reckoned on as her supports. Disappointed, angry, and perhaps in poverty, she dips her pen in the gall of rebellion and sedition; she asserts the right of women to chuse their *protector*, as men do their rulers; to-day William, to-morrow John: her arguments are incontrovertible, elegance of language, and strength of diction, aid her; she does not doubt making converts of all the world, and expects not only a restitution to a situation of credit and countenance, but the gratitude of her fellow-citizens for the new lights she has thrown on morality. She attaches to her all of her own sex in her predicament: she calls on the men for their plaudits, but they reply—‘We admire your talents; we admit your theories to be excellent; and can you but persuade the world to reduce them to practice, you will deserve well of the advocates for liberty; but *entre nous* you will find there are certain prejudices not yet removed respecting the *property* of wives and a *lineal succession*, that will very much oppose you. At least we must beg

to be excused from avowing ourselves convinced by you, till we have shaken off a few more of our prejudices.'

Enough of this rant,—and of a work, which is written with much ill temper, and is only calculated to throw dust into men's eyes on one of the plainest questions in the world, and to make them indifferent, or rather, adverse to the cause of freedom, a cause in which the happiness of every human being, male or female, is deeply interested.

As to Miss Williams, though she is certainly attacked with great rudeness and illiberality, we are little inclined to pity her; not because we are at all convinced that she has deserved such treatment, but because we are well persuaded, that her reputation, and more especially the *Mens sibi conscia recti*, will afford her impregnable defence against the shafts of her concealed adversary.

D. M.

ART. XIX. *Mon Agonie de Trente-huit Heures; ou Recit de ce qui m'est arrivé, &c. My Agony of thirty-eight Hours; or a Recital of what occurred to me, what I saw, and what I heard during my Detention in the Prison of the Abbey St. Germain; from the 22d of August to the fourth of September.* By Jourgniac Saint-Méard, *ci devant* Captain-Commandant of the Chasseurs of the King's Regiment of Infantry. Ninth Edition. Printed at Paris in 1792, and imported by J. Boffe, Gerard-street, 1793.

THE hypocrisy, the obstinacy, and the supposed treachery of the executive power, brought about the revolution of the tenth of August. The perfidious surrender of the frontier towns, the progress of the combined armies, the horrid manifesto of the duke of Brunswick, and the dread of a conspiracy on the part of the disaffected in order to effect a counter-revolution, produced the massacre of the second of September. The first of these events was countenanced by the most zealous and enlightened patriots in the empire, who firmly believed that the basis of French liberty could never be fixed but upon the ruins of the throne: it was with horror that the same men beheld the second, for although they equally detested monarchy and aristocracy, yet they were desirous of the reign of the laws.

It has so occurred, however, that all the great and virtuous characters in France have, on this occasion, been indiscriminately and ignorantly blended with a small and detestable faction, while it is notorious, that Petion and Manuel, after a number of ineffectual attempts, at length put an end to a slaughter, during which Rolland, Condorcet, and Brissot were entered upon the bloody list of proscription, and escaped from death but by an intervention little short of a miracle.

The relation now before us is at once curious and interesting. It is written by an avowed royalist, who utters his sentiments with a manly and intrepid firmness. His testimony therefore is not to be suspected, in as far as relates to the humanity displayed by the people, whenever they were permitted to consult their own natural feelings.

' The



‘The principal reason [says he in his preface] which has determined me to this publication is, to demonstrate that, although the people are impetuous and irresistible when they believe themselves to be betrayed, we ought not on this account to despair of their justice.’

Chap. I. *Fourteen Hours at the municipal Committee of Inspection.*—This committee had caused Mr. St. Méard to be arrested on the twenty-second of August. He was brought to the town-house at nine o'clock in the morning of that day, and remained there until eleven o'clock at night. Two persons, apparently members, ordered him to be conducted into the hall, and while one of them, overcome with fatigue, fell asleep, the other, after telling him ‘that they were all equal,’ and desiring him to be seated, commenced his examination. It appeared, from the interrogatories, that he was suspected of having served with the emigrants on the frontiers, and also of having conducted a news-paper, entitled *Le Journal de la Cour & de la Ville*.

Chap. II. *Ten days at the Abbey.*—Three soldiers, on his examination being closed, carried him to this prison; and soon after his arrival he was introduced into a large hall, which had formerly served as a chapel, and where he beheld nineteen persons lying upon beds composed of mats. The one assigned to him, had been occupied by a Mr. Dangremont, whose head had been cut off two days before.

On that very afternoon, when they were about to sit down to table, Mr. Chantereine, colonel of the king's body guards, stabbed himself three different times with a knife, after having exclaimed, ‘We are all destined to be massacred—My God, I am about to fly to thee!’ He died in ten minutes afterwards.

On the twenty-third, our author employed himself in composing a memorial, in which he unmasked the turpitude of his *dénonciateurs*; he afterwards found means to send copies of it to the minister of justice, the committee of inspection, the section in which he had resided, and to all those who might interest themselves in his behalf.

About five o'clock, Mr. Durofoi, editor of the *Gazette de Paris*, was brought in. He embraced Mr. St. M., and then presented him with the following note, which he had just received from a lady greatly attached to him.

“My friend, you must prepare yourself for death; you are condemned, and to-morrow——my heart is ready to burst; but you know what I promised you. Adieu!”

While he read this billet, the eyes of Durofoi were full of tears; and when he had concluded, that unfortunate gentleman cried out, “Alas! she will suffer infinitely more than myself.” Next day his head was cut off at the *guillotine*.

On the twenty-fifth, the commissaries of the prison permitted an evening paper to be introduced, and on this occasion, Mr. St. M. read a paragraph, which, to his inexpressible sorrow, accused him of being the editor of an aristocratic journal.

At midnight, a municipal officer entered and inscribed their names, and time of confinement, upon a register.

On

On the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth, a number of carriages arrived with more prisoners. On the thirtieth, at eleven o'clock at night, a person of about eighty years of age, who proved to be Mr. Cazotte, author of the poems of *Olivier, le Diable amoureux, &c.*, was introduced into their apartment. The ridiculous gaiety of this old man, and the mode of his address, which was after the *eastern manner*, helped to divert the prisoners, whom he attempted to persuade, by means of the history of Cain and Abel, that those in confinement were infinitely more happy, than they who enjoyed their liberty. He appeared to be exceedingly vexed that they did not seem to believe him; and, notwithstanding this, actually endeavoured to demonstrate to them, that their present situation was merely an *emanation of the apocalypse*.

On the first of September, three prisoners were liberated, who were much more astonished at their arrest, than at their deliverance from the Abbey, as they were the most zealous patriots in their respective sections.

Chap. III. *The commencement of my agony of thirty-eight hours.*—On Sunday, September the second, the jailer served up their dinner before the usual time; and this circumstance, together with his frightened air and haggard eyes, seemed to presage some sinister event. About two o'clock he returned again: the prisoners surrounded him, and asked a thousand questions, but he remained deaf to all their entreaties, and, after having carefully collected the knives which they had lately made use of, and ordered the nurse of a wounded officer to retire, he himself took his leave of them.

In half an hour more, the frightful noise made by the people in the street was considerably augmented by the drums, by the firing of three pieces of cannon, and by the alarm bell, which rang in every quarter of the capital. The fears of the prisoners were greatly increased by the cries of the populace, who surrounded several coaches filled with persons intended for the Abbey, and exclaimed, that all the bishops and other ecclesiastics that had been *penned up* there, were massacred.

Towards four o'clock, the piercing cries of a man, who was hacked in pieces by the cuts of a sabre, attracted the inhabitants of this dreary mansion towards the window, from which they perceived somebody lying dead on the pavement; a few minutes after, another was killed in the same manner, and several more in succession.

'It is impossible [says our author, and the reader will readily believe him] to express the horror of that profound and gloomy silence which reigned during these executions, and which was only interrupted by the cries of those who were sacrificed, and by the blows of the sabre which fell upon their heads! The moment that they were murdered, a low and hollow murmur took place, reinforced by the sound of *vive la nation!* which was a thousand times more frightful to us than the former silence. In the interval between one massacre and another, we heard it uttered under our windows—"Not one must escape; they must all be killed, more especially those in the chapel, where there are none

but conspirators!"—It was of us that they spoke, and I believe that it will be entirely useless to observe, that we more than once envied the happiness of those, who were shut up in the most gloomy dungeons.'

At five o'clock the name of Mr. Cazotte, who had been removed to another apartment, was called out. The moment that this venerable old man had left the prison, his daughter, a young woman of about nineteen years of age, precipitated herself upon the neck of her father, and the people, affected with this instance of filial affection, demanded and obtained his pardon.

At ten o'clock on Monday morning, the abbé l'Enfant, confessor to the king, and the abbé de Chapt-Rastignac appeared in the gallery of the chapel, now converted into a prison, and, after announcing to their companions that their last moment was fast approaching, invited them to assemble around them, in order to receive their benediction. On this, they instantly fell on their knees, by a kind of instantaneous impulse, and complied with the request of these two venerable old men, who were massacred in half an hour afterwards.

After this, the prisoners selected some of their companions, to repair to a turret which overlooked the street, in order to inform them of the manner in which the victims were put to death. These on their return related, that such as held their hands up suffered greater torment than those who presented themselves boldly to the executioner: this hint they all determined to profit by.

Two things contributed greatly to comfort our author; the first was a dream, during which he fancied that he was tried and absolved by the people; the second, a conversation with one of the national guards, whose favour he had acquired, by addressing him in his own provincial dialect.

At two o'clock in the afternoon, the prisoners received some water from the jailor, for the first time in twenty-six hours, an omission on his part, which a *federate* would have avenged with his blood, but for the interposition of the sufferers.

After the death of a young officer, who appears to have endured great torture, on account of the *bluntness* of the executioner's sword, the people, who had hitherto been greatly agitated, became calm, and several voices cried out mercy! mercy! This circumstance seemed to infuse a glimmering of hope into the minds of those confined in the chapel.

At ten o'clock they were marshalled two and two, and conducted towards the tribunal where they were to be re-examined; such indeed was our author's good fortune, that by the kindness of the centinel, before mentioned, he was permitted to be present at two trials, a circumstance which contributed not a little to his advantage. After an agony of thirty-seven hours, infinitely more horrible than death, a wicket was opened, his name called out, and three men having seized him, he was dragged forwards in order to receive his sentence.

Chap. iv. *The last crisis of my agony.* 'By means of the light of two torches, I perceived the terrible tribunal, which was about



to pronounce either life or death upon me. The president, dressed in a gray coat, and having a sword by his side, was leaning against a table covered with papers, pens, ink, pipes, and bottles. This table was surrounded by ten persons, either sitting or standing, two of them were in waistcoats and aprons; others slept upon the benches. Two men whose shirts were stained with blood, and whose hands were armed with sabres, guarded the door, while an old turnkey kept his hand upon the bolt. The moment that I was brought before this bloody and expeditious court, in presence of which the best protection was to be entirely destitute of any, and where all the resources of the imagination were of no effect, provided they were not founded upon truth, two of my guards took hold of my arms, while the third seized me by the collar of my coat.'

The president having demanded his name and profession, and handed his commitment and accusation to the assistant judges, one of them intimated to the prisoner, that the least prevarication would ruin him. Having refuted all the charges adduced against him, and proved that he was neither an emigrant, nor the editor of one of the *aristocratic* journals, one of the judges, or rather jurymen, addressed him thus :

' You say sir, that you are neither this, nor that : what are you then ?

' Why to tell you my mind frankly, I have been a royalist.

' Here a general murmur took place, which was miraculously appeased by one of the judges, who appeared to interest himself in my behalf, and who spoke word for word as follows :

" It is not in order to judge opinions, that we sit here ; it is to judge the actions that result from them."

' Scarcely had these precious words been uttered, when I exclaimed, " yes, gentlemen, I have been an open royalist, but I was never paid for being so. I have been a royalist, because I thought that a monarchical form of government was most congenial to my country ; because I loved the king freely, and on his own account."

' The murmur that now took place was more flattering than the former ; in short, the president, after having taken off his hat, addressed the tribunal as follows : " I do not see any cause of suspicion against this gentleman ; I therefore grant him his liberty. Is it your opinion ?" [all the judges] " yes ! yes ! it is but just !"

Scarce had the verdict of *not guilty* been pronounced, when every person in the apartment rose up and embraced the late prisoner. The president then sent a deputation to the people, to instruct them that St. Meard was acquitted.

The moment that it returned, our author was desired to be covered, and to follow them. As soon as they entered the street, one of them cried out hats off ! citizens, this is a person for whom your judges demand aid and assistance. On this, he was surrounded by a number of torches, and embraced by all who surrounded him, the spectators at the same time exclaiming *vive la nation !* He was then escorted to his own house, by three persons

appointed for the purpose ; one was a mason, the second a journeyman wigmaker, the third a federate ; and notwithstanding their situations seemed to be far from affluent, on being offered a pocket-book full of *assignats*, they rejected it with disdain, exclaiming, “ we do not follow this trade for money ! your friend there (pointing to a gentleman who had exerted himself for his preservation) has promised us a glass of brandy ; we will drink it, and then return to our post.”

Chap. v. *To my enemies*. In this Mr. St. Meard observes, that the decree for the suppression of feudal claims has bereaved him of half his fortune ; he has however reflected upon this circumstance, and he is now consoled by the idea of its being highly beneficial to his tenants.

It is impossible to read this narrative, without remarking, that it bears evidence of a fact, hitherto unexampled perhaps in history ; that of a frantic populace paying an implicit obedience to the sentence of a tribunal, created and protected by themselves. Every thing indeed seems to prove, that men, who amidst the delirium of excess were ever ready to interpose their clemency, in behalf of those *pointed* out to them as proper objects of mercy, could never have been urged to such outrageous violence, had not their passions been worked up to vengeance, by the arts of a few blood-thirsty and unrelenting miscreants.

ART. XX. *An Account of the Manner in which the Persons confined in the Prisons of Paris were tried and put to death, on the 2d and 3d of September*. By an Eye-witness. 8vo. 36 pages. Price 1s. or two guineas per hundred. Stockdale. 1792.

THIS is a translation of *part* of the last pamphlet, with a false title page to it. An advertisement is prefixed, stating, that this publication is intended ‘to give to the people of England an idea of the horrors of the *reform* in France, and particularly of the change which has taken place there in *criminal judicature*.’

ART. XXI. *The Life of the late Earl of Barrymore. Including a History of the Wargrave Theatricals, and Original Anecdotes of eminent Persons*. By Anthony Pasquin, Esq. 8vo. 79 pages. Price 2s. Symonds. 1793.

IF the life of the young nobleman, whose memoirs are here narrated by a friend, did not afford great cause for exultation to his family, or hold forth much moral worth for the imitation of mankind, yet it is to be hoped, that the present little tract, will not be without its use.

Richard, late earl of Barrymore, viscount Buttevant, and baron Barry of the kingdom of Ireland, was born August 14, 1769 ; he succeeded to the title and estate August 1, 1773, and died on March 6, 1793. He seems to have possessed a good heart, and no contemptible understanding ; indeed, another *direction* to his talents appears to have been alone wanting, in order to have rendered him a respectable member of society. It was one of his many misfortunes to have been introduced, at too early an age, into what is termed the fashionable world ;

world; and to have been too much indulged by his immediate relations. What but dissipation and extravagance could be expected from a boy, who, on being sent to Eton school, was intrusted with 1000*l.* by way of pocket money! The following anecdote relates to the death of the lady, who afforded him this opportunity of indulging an early habit of profusion:

‘ On the demise of his grandmother, the late countess of Harrington, a whimsical, though serious incident occurred at Eton school, the head master of which was particularly requested to break the disagreeable news of the lady’s death to her grandson, as tenderly and progressively as possible:—the method adopted by the learned principal was singular and appropriate: he called lord Barrymore to him in the school room, with an air of severe authority, and after questioning him upon the articles of his study, desired him to construe a part of Virgil, at the conclusion of which, he rejoined abruptly, “Your grandmother’s ill, my lord!”—then made his pupil proceed with another passage, at the end of which he muttered, in a lower key, “she is very ill, my lord.”

“I am extremely sorry to hear that, doctor,” replied the noble Tyro, and read another part of his author, when the classic chief interrupted him, by a declaration that she was dying. “Dying!” exclaimed the astonished boy. “Come, come, she is dead,” concluded the master, “now you know the worst, go to your place, my lord, and make the best of an irretrievable misfortune.”

Such was the ridiculously expensive style in which lord B. lived, that we are assured his servants drank Rhenish, while the boatmen who frequented his house were indulged with Burgundy!

‘ His munificence was ruinous; the treasury of Cræsus would not have been equal to the completion of his ideas: but it was the effusion of a noble spirit, that panted to do more than man, with only mortal means. Good sense was so mingled with his errors, that half their deformities were obliterated to the mental vision of an observer. During the Ascot races in 1791, he prepared two banquets for the prince of Wales, which cost him seventeen hundred guineas, but his royal highness was not a partaker of either; to the first came only himself and Mr. Franco, to the other lord Falkland, and myself!’

‘ His retentive faculties [adds his biographer,] were astonishing; I have known him return from a new opera, and play the overture distinctly and correctly, though he was not acquainted with the theory of music!—In our private oratorical efforts at Wargrave, upon a theme suddenly announced, he was generally the most poignant and strongest reasoner among us; upon an occasion when Mr. Stone had a tenant run away of the name of Day, very much in his debt, it was proposed that each gentleman should write an epigram upon the occurrence; the time allowed was ten minutes, when lord B. eclipsed us all, by a spirited effusion that would not have dishonoured *Martial*; as I cannot recollect it now, I will not injure his memory by any substitution of matter.—He despised those struggles of the aristocratic for precedence, who can only resort to the practice of insolence for the power of distinction. As he borrowed his superior claims to social respect from heaven, he disdained the idea of being arranged as the slave of those local honours which may be equally administered to the idiot, the villain, and the truly noble. No man will seek to acquire dignity from  
external



external splendour, who can retire within himself, and strengthen his own felicity by his own reflection!—As the natural world is beautifully subservient to the moral, so is the gorgeousness of a valuable man only secondary to the tenor and attributes of his being.—He knew well how to make a right estimate of the durable and the transient, and adhered wisely to those comforting principles which the favour of princes could not establish, or the operations of calamity overthrow.

‘As there was no *Auberge*, *Caravanfara*, or hotel in the village (of Wargrave) furnished with a decent bed, all the visitors to the family, which frequently amounted to twenty, were obliged to sleep together in two small rooms, unbarred, unbolted, and unlocked, distinguished by the names of the upper and lower barracks. The time allotted for repose, was generally from five o’clock in the morning, until noon; and if any ill starred varlet presumed to steal away from the midnight carousal, before the common signal for departure, his bands of sleep were burst asunder, by a Dutch dirge, an incantation to Hecate, or a reeking sacrifice in the tripod of his chamber, not highly agreeable to the olfactory nerves of the recreant bacchanal!—When the theatre was finished, each had his peculiar hammock inviolable.

‘When the season and the sun-beams authorized the proceeding, we had an aquatic *fete*, and dined on some island between *Henley* and *Reading*, and so inebriate was the majority of the mimic crew, that had not the venerable Thames been auspicious to the festival, half of the assemblage would have been ingulphed amid his mud. The most select, brilliant, and satisfactory parties were held in Blake’s Wood, near Wargrave, where we dined in a tent, and dressed our food like the antique hunters, often on the spot where it had been destroyed;—we had secret places marked upon the sod where the wine was buried beneath the turf, and dug up as occasion urged—with song, catch, and glee, we alarmed the feathered tenants of the grove, and met the gloomy advances of the night,

“With tipsy dance and jollity.”

At some of these voluptuous orgies, Anacreon might have sat at the festive board without disgust.

‘Lord B.’s companionable points had singular seduction; he was not in many of his prominent traits dissimilar to lord Rochester and the duke of Wharton, though he uttered not the blasphemies of the first nobleman, or practised the vulgarities of the other;—he was gay, but not absurd, and witty but not uncharitable: he had more of what I shall denominate an *intuitive merit*, than any man I ever surveyed: he was a poet, a painter, and a musician, without having waded through the accustomed preparatory ordeal.’

In addition to these various qualifications, lord B. was an actor, and performed the characters of ‘*Scrub*,’ ‘*Hob*,’ ‘*Bobadil*,’ and ‘*Gregory Gubbins*,’ with great ability; he was also the ‘best gentleman jockey and coachman in the kingdom.’ The present pamphlet, notwithstanding some eccentricities, in point of style and ideas, affords a considerable fund of amusement, while it offers a most ample field for reflection, and not unfrequently for commiseration and contempt.

ART. XXII. *The Minor Jockey Club; or a Sketch of the Manners of the Greeks.* 8vo. 93 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Farnham. 1793.

THE

THE idea of this publication is avowedly borrowed from another, of which we have had occasion more than once to take notice. See Analytical Review, Vol. xii. page 529, Vol. xiii. page 324, and Vol. xiv. page 344. We shall here transcribe a short extract from the preface, by way of conveying the author's intention, in his own express words.

'It cannot be deemed an illaudable plan, at a moment when the gaming influenza rages with such violence, to take a peep into the different cabinets of the minor Greeks; and a just distinction between the fair honourable gamester, and the lurking insidious sharper, may serve as a beacon to unwary youth, and prevent them from being swallowed up in the quicksands of destruction. Gaming is a vice that grows out of avarice, and frequently out of want; it stimulates the insatiate appetite of one, and holds out strong allurements to the other. In large populous cities, where luxury and dissipation have made the greatest progress, this vice bears the most absolute sway. Moralists may declaim, and satyrists inveigh against it, but the evil will still remain; if defeated in one shape, it will break out in another, and all attempts to destroy the effect, must, of course, prove vain and nugatory, till the original cause be removed. If this reasoning be admitted, and it appears to me to be undeniable, it becomes a very principal question of police, how to modify the abuse in such a manner, as to render it the least dangerous and destructive to society; and when examined on this ground, public gaming houses cannot justly be considered such grievous nuisances, as in general they are represented to be.

'Were all the unhappy consequences of private gaming to be enumerated, they would harrow up the feeling soul with horror, and demonstrate the necessity of submitting to the abuse as it exists, rather than by an apparently plausible innovation, restore the old prowling hawk to the full use of his talons. In the course of this work, some *personages* will be held out to public notice, whose faces have been long familiar and notorious in this metropolis. It is not from any hope that satire, however pointed, can ever operate correction on such hardened vice, that this pamphlet is ushered into the world, but as has been already observed, it may instruct the ignorant, and teach them to distinguish between the insidious Greek, and the fair open gamester. Upon this moral basis, the author writes, and submits his book to the candour and judgment of his fellow citizens, with all its literary imperfections on its head.'

Notwithstanding the 'moral basis' assumed by the author of this pamphlet, we must here express our utter abhorrence of *public* as well as *private* gaming, and declare our firm persuasion, that his eulogiums on several notorious *black-legs* cannot be attended but by the worst possible consequences to the young and the ignorant, to whom he pretends to dedicate his labours. s.

ART. XXIII. *Memoirs of Hildebrand Freeman, Esq. or a Sketch of 'The Rights of Man.' A recent Story founded upon Facts, and written by himself.* 8vo. 66 pages. Price 1s. 6d. R. Edwards, 1792.

HIL-

Hildebrand Freeman, Esq., is the son of a clergyman in Yorkshire, who is put under the tuition of Dr. Meekly, a dissenting minister at Birmingham. He becomes a convert to the religious and political creed of his tutor; and goes over to France, prepossessed in favour of the French constitution. But having carried matters to such a refinement in religion as to have left himself very little christian consolation, he returns to the good old doctrine and discipline of the church of England; and, renouncing the doctrine of the Rights of Man, as held forth in the declaration of rights in France, he embraces the doctrine of the Rights of Man as exemplified, according to him, in a proper distribution of those rights, by the English government, in food to the hungry, employment to the industrious, &c.

We think Hildebrand Freeman, Esq., though he speaks of his tutor as conducting himself in a becoming and exemplary manner in his private dealing with mankind, acts a mean part in the name he hath assigned him. For a Dr. Meekly (meaning by it we suppose Dr. Priestley) is a name expressive rather of a mean unmanly kind of character, one degree, it may be, above a Jerry Sneak. Whereas the conduct of Dr. Priestley, he must know, has been uniformly brave and manly, even in the judgment of his enemies. As to the effect which Dr. Meekly's doctrines had on H. F. Esq. we will just observe, we find nothing in the doctrines, even as stated by himself, that has so much the character of forlorn hope. So far as our observations have gone, we have found the persons embracing those doctrines, cheerful in their deportment, and lively in their hopes; though we are not ignorant, that there is no rule without an exception. As to the defects pointed out by H. F. Esq. in the French constitution, we think some things which Mr. F. calls by that name are its excellencies; some we acknowledge are discordancies, and others imperfections. But some of its greatest defects have, we think, escaped the penetration of H. F. Esq., and to its excellencies he has not done justice. We will therefore take the liberty of just hinting one of its excellencies to him, which is, that the French constitution has made provision for correcting imperfections by future revivals.

A. Y.

ART. XXIV. *A Fashionable Caricature, or the Proverbs of our Ancestors, prophetically descriptive of the most distinguished Personages, in the present Age, of the Court, the Senate, the Army, the Navy, the Bar, the City, and the Theatres.* 12mo. 60 pages. Price 1s. Thifelton. 1792.

WE are told that the names in a court calendar, and a variety of proverbs, written on separate slips of paper, and thrown into two punch bowls, were drawn out one by one, and produced the arrangement here given to the public. Take a specimen.

'His M——y. A good beginning ensures a good ending.


'P——s Aug——ta. A fair face is half a portion.'

O.

INDEX.



# I N D E X.

 Books reviewed have the first word printed in Capitals; Notices of new Books, and Articles of Intelligence, in Italics: the Languages in which Books are written, if not in English wholly, are pointed out by, *A. Arabic*, *Æ. Æthiopic*, *C. Chinese*, *Cu. Curdistanic*, *D. Dutch*, *Dan. Danske*, *E. English*, *F. French*, *G. German*, *Gr. Greek*, *Gre. Greenland*, *H. Hebrew*, *I. Italian*, *Icel. Icelandic*, *L. Latin*, *Lap. Laplandic*, *N. Norwegian*, *P. Portuguese*, *Po. Polish*, *R. Russian*, *S. Spanish*, *Sam. Samaritan*, *Sc. Sclavonian*, *Sw. Swedish*, *Syr. Syriac*, *W. Welsh*, following the Title: either of these placed after the Number of the Page denotes, that the Reader will not there meet with Information on the Subject, but be referred to some Book, in such Language, in which he may obtain it.

<b>A.</b>	
<b>A</b> BRIDGMENT of Hey's Happiness and Rights	340
Scripture History	347
the New Testament	<i>ib.</i>
Abscess in the bladder	503
thorax successfully treated	44
Aborbents, earthy, not similar in effect	355
Absorption, remarks on	475
Abstraction, mental, remarks on	22
<i>Academy</i> , Imperial and Royal, at Brussels, Memoirs of, Vol. V. F.	108
of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, at Paris	107
Sciences, at Paris	105, 353
Belles Lettres, and Arts, at Lyons	353
Royal military, of Sweden	354
of Sciences and Belles Lettres, at Berlin	353
at Gottingen	108, 465
Acbar, description of the tomb of	246
ACCOUNT of the Manner in which the Persons in the Prisons at Paris were put to Death	532
Acid, carbonic, see Air, fixed.	
muriatic, recommended in gout	347, 342
of benjamin found in cinnamon water	477
of molybdæna, fine blue colour produced from	235
phosphoric, obtained from bones, contains a peculiar earth	235
ADDRESS of the Friends and Supporters of Charity Schools	347
APP. VOL. XV.	

ADDRESS to the Author of the Poetical	
Essay on the French Revolution	457
disaffected Subjects of George III.	103
French Nation	328
Inhabitants of Great-Britain and Ireland	335
Jacobin and other Societies of the French	231
People of England, on the Right of Dissenters to complete Toleration	85
Public, on cashiering military Officers without a Trial	218
ADVENTURES of Telemachus, in blank Verse	169
Political, of Harry Humorous and Timothy True Blue	454
Africa, journey in	478 G.
on the ancient geography of <i>ib.</i>	G.
AGONY, My, of thirty-eight Hours, F.	527
Agrarian law, impolitic in a commercial country	91 F.
Agriculture, history of, for 1792	478
Ague, obstinate, cured by electricity	44
Air, dephlogisticated, not evolved by quicksilver completely calcined	467
fixed, decomposition of	275, 476
efficacy of, in dysury	233 G.
extricated, in converting cast iron into malleable	273
heavy inflammable, extricated, in converting cast iron into malleable	<i>ib.</i>
nitrous, capable of maintaining combustion	477
observations on	468
Alarm, false, on the propagation of	207
Ale-houses, observations on	517
Alkali, mineral, mode of obtaining from vitriolated natron	235
volatile, beneficial in scrofula	355
P p	Alliteration,

# I N D E X.

- Alliteration**, a mean of association of ideas 133
- Alluvions**, observations on 116
- Alum**, mode of purifying the earth of 235
- Ambassador** sent to a foreign power does not imply an approbation of it's conduct 210
- AMERICA**, Oration on the Discovery of 262
- America**, advantages of the government of 220, 262
- freedom of religion in 82, 238
- how peopled 473 F.
- on the government of 332, 446
- peopled the old world 473 F.
- Americans** have a good trade to Tenerife 123
- Amphibia*, Physiology of, L. 356
- Amphibia*, new species of 465 G.
- Amputation** above the knee, observations on 146
- Amsterdam**, account of the rasp-house at 252
- number of persons executed at 253
- AMUSING** Instructor, E. I. 348
- ANATOLE**: a Poem on the Birth of Christ 167
- Anatomy**, history of, for 1792 475
- Ancient northern Literature*, Vol. II. G. 479
- Ancient vow** 110
- Ancients**, coins, weights, and measures of the 109 F.
- doctrines of the, concerning colours 116
- illustrations of the natural history of the 356 L.
- on the deluges of the 109 F.
- geography of the 356 G, 478 G.
- state of the arts amongst the 258 E, 260, 287 note, 477
- Ankle-joint**, extraordinary dislocation at the 146 E.
- Anecdotes** 32, 61, 268, 269, 284, 286, 379, 412
- Aneurism**, observations on 146, 501
- Angina pectoris** cured 508
- remarks on 501 E.
- Animal electricity**, observations on 112, 466
- Animalization**, remarks on 477
- Animals**, curious fact relative to the horns of 465
- on the nutrition of 105
- Animation**, suspended, remarks on 45
- ANTIDOTE** to Rebellion 432
- ANTI-GALLIMANIA** 298
- Antimonials**, cautions against, in fevers 145
- Antiquities and Curiosities of Pozzuoli*, I. 118
- discovered in Germany, G. 119
- Anus**, imperforated, successfully treated 501 E.
- Aorta descendens**, unusual conformation of the 501
- Apoplectic symptoms** in a child cured 355
- Apostles**, on the testimony of the 192 E.
- APPEAL** to Men against Paine's Rights of Man 518
- the Common Sense of the British People 335
- APPENDIX** to Observations on foreign Prisons and Hospitals 252
- Appetite**, canine, case of 504
- ARABIA**, Travels through 26
- Arabic Language*, Traces of the, in Portugal, P. 480
- Arabic history**, remarks on 478 G.
- Arabs**, account of the 27, 31
- new religion amongst the 31
- Architecture**, ancient, remarks on 244 E.
- Ardennes**, on the cultivation of the 109 F.
- Argonauts**, on the expedition of the 259 E.
- Aristotle**, elucidations of the natural history of 356 L.
- ARMY**, On Diseases of the 143
- Army**, danger of ministers being permitted to cashier the officers of the 218
- standing, pretext for the maintenance of a 494
- remarks on a 218, 223
- Arteries**, experiments on tying, in brutes 146
- good effects of compression of the, in nervous diseases 42
- nerves belong only to 234
- Arts**, history of, for 1792 477
- state of, amongst the ancients 258 E, 260, 287 note, 477
- in India 248 E.
- Asclepias syriaca*, paper made from 237
- Association of ideas** 132, 390
- source of the idea of beauty 388
- ASSOCIATIONS**, Letter on the present 324
- Associations**, remarks on the 324, 446, 451, 452, 515
- Assyrians**, early state of the 258 E.
- Astronomical and nautical Almanack*, for 1793, F. 471
- Ephemeris for 1795, G. 472
- Observations, Importance of continuing, Sw. 118
- Astronomical Instruments**, method of detecting erroneous divisions of 472 G.
- Astronomy**,

# I N D E X.

- Astronomy, history of, for 1792** 474  
**Atheists, address to** 305  
**Athens, early refinement of** 261  
**Atlantic and Pacific oceans, artificial communication between the, proposed** 473  
**Attention, remarks on** 20  
***Aurora's* (G. d') Guide to the Antiquities and Curiosities of Pozzuoli, I.** 118  
**Austria, of Brabant under the house of** 482  
**Austrians and Turks, war between the** 359 G.  
**AUTHENTIC State Papers between M. Chauvelin and Lord Grenville** 435  
**AUTHENTICITY of the five Books of Moses considered** 72, 190  
**Authors, advice to** 94  
**Axiom, what** 130
- B.**
- Baltic, currents of the** 118 Sw.  
**—— higher than the ocean** 118  
**Banyan tree** 242  
**Baptism, observations on** 84 E.  
**Barbary, on the quicksands on the coast of** 109 F.  
**BARRINGTON (Bish.) and Perc. Stockdale, Letters between** 351  
**BARRYMORE, Life of the late Earl of** 532  
**Barytes, aerated, experiments on** 235  
**Basaltes, a petrification in a substance contained in** 116  
**—— formed in the humid way** 109  
**Bath, virtues of the waters of** 501  
**Bathings, cold, excellent in convulsions** 45  
**—— sea, utility of** 501  
**Battle, narrow escapes in** 270  
**Beauty, objections to certain theories of** 387  
**—— theory of** 388  
**Bebrands (J. B. J.) The Heart has no Nerves, L.** 234  
**Belair's (A. F. J. de) New Elements of Fortification, F.** 356  
**Belgians, ancient** 109 L.  
**—— documents relative to the history of the** 110 F.  
**—— inventions of the** 110 L.  
**Benares, account of Mr. Hastings's expedition to** 244 E.  
**—— description of** *ib.* E.  
**Benevolence, instances of** 464 E.  
**—— observations on** *ib.* E.  
**BENGAL Sugars, on the Importation of** 523  
**Berger (Dr. von) Account of the last illness of, Dan. G.** 112  
**BERRIDGE'S (J.) Farewel Sermon** 314  
**Berridge (J.) account of the death of** 314 E.  
**Beryl, Siberian, observations on the** 465 G.
- BILL for Relief of insolvent Debtors** 454  
**Bird, dead, converted into fatty matter** 272  
**Birds, food of** 393  
**—— longevity of** 394  
**—— migration of** 393 E.  
**—— natural history of** *ib.* E.  
**BLACK'S (Dr. W.) Reasons for preventing the French from trampling upon Europe** 229  
**Bladder, abscess in the** 503  
**—— catgut bougie dissolved in the** 504  
**—— perforations of the** 506, 509  
**—— scirrhus, two stones lodged in a** 146 E.  
**BLIGH'S (W.) Voyage to the South Sea** 121  
**Blindness cured by inflammation of the eye** 40  
**—— remedies for** 47  
**Blisters, analysis of the serosity produced by** 113  
**Blood, spitting of, remedy for** 36  
**Blue carmine** 235  
**Bode's Astronomical Ephemeris for 1795, G.** 472  
**Body, human, effects of immersion in water on the** 272  
**Böcker's (Dr. N.) Last Illness of Dr. von Berger, Dan.** 112  
**Boleyn (A.) letters from** 264 E.  
**Bologna, punishment for murder at** 379  
**Bones, experiments and remarks on the** 146 E.  
**—— of animals of warm climates found in cold ones, remarks on** 236  
**—— peculiar earth obtained from** 235  
**Borax with base of calcareous earth, and with base of volatile alkali** 470  
**Borde's (De la) History of the South Sea, F.** 473  
**BOTANIC Garden, Part I.** 287  
**Botanic Characters, L.** 237  
**—— Manual, G.** 236  
**Botany Bay, see New South Wales.**  
**—— history of, for 1792** 475  
**BOTT'S (E.) Decisions on the Poor Laws** 410  
**Bougie, catgut, dissolved in the bladder** 505  
**BRABANT, Five great Epochs of the Duchy of, F.** 481  
**Brabant, account of** 481  
**—— freedom of, at an early period** 482, 486  
**Bragur, Vol. II. G.** 479  
**Brain, bone found in the longitudinal sinus of the** 233 G.  
**—— lymphatics in the** 475  
**—— new ganglion discovered in the** 475  
**—— part of the, lost in a case of fractured cranium** 509 E.  

Bread



# I N D E X.

- Bread fruit described 121 E.  
 — introduced into the West-Indies 478  
 — two species of, at Timor 126  
 Breast, abscess in the, successfully treated 44  
 BRISNOT'S (J. P.) Report of the Committee on the Disposition of Britain towards France 440  
 BRITAIN, Example of France a Warning to 447  
 — Great, and Ireland, Address to the Inhabitants of 335  
 — Five Minutes Advice to the People of 102  
 — Interest of, respecting the French War 224  
 — Serious Address to the free-born Sons of 227  
 — Songs of the aboriginal Bards of 162  
 Britain, advantages of the settlement at Nooka to 473 F.  
 — alliance with the Dutch of no great advantage to 102  
 — conduct of, towards France 435, 440  
 — effects of christianity in, since the reformation 312 E.  
 — the French revolution on 100  
 — present war on 324  
 — government of, compared with that of Hungary 238 L.  
 — ministers of, chargeable with the death of the French king 326  
 — on a reform in 64, 100, 212, 215, 221, 226, 315, 321, 444  
 — the constitution of 75, 84, 95, 96, 215, 219, 220, 221, 332 E, 333, 337, 338, 451, 515 E, 516, 517  
 — expenditure of 442  
 — liberty of the press in 335  
 — national debt of 325  
 — parliament of 212, 320, 321, 444, 517  
 — present state of 197, 203, 207, 220, 225, 226, 316, 326, 335, 339, 433, 437, 442, 453  
 — state of dissenters in 516  
 — West India colonies of 520—3  
 — peculiar advantages of 77 E.  
 — plan for a continual supply of ship-timber in 101  
 — present state of the representation of 212, 321  
 — privileges of the parliament of 264 E.  
 — people of 215  
 — proposal for erecting lazarettos, and abolishing quarantine in 257 E.  
 Britain, war with France inexpedient to 102, 202 E, 208, 222, 223, 225, 325—7, 446  
 — necessary to 326—8  
 BRITISH Constitution, Exposure of Attempts to destroy the 103  
 — of Government compared with that of a Republic 333  
 — Present State of the 517  
 — Principles of Order and Happiness under the 226  
 — Incendiaries, Poetical Epistle to the 299  
 — People, Appeal to the Common Sense of the 335  
 BRITONS, Three Dialogues on the Rights of 226  
 Bronchocele, cases of 503 E.  
 — remedies for 503  
 BROWN (J.) on preserving inviolable the System of Government 332  
 Brucke's (J. C.) Discourse on opening a Sunday School, G. 480  
 BRUNSWICK Laurel 298  
 Brunswick, house of correction at 255  
 BRYANT (Mr.) Letter to 422  
 — on the Authenticity of the Scriptures 415  
 BUCHAN'S (Lord) Lives of Fletcher and Thomson 59  
 BULL (John) in Hysterics 298  
 Burgundy, establishment of the circle of 483  
 Burial-places of the Mohammedans by the way-side 243  
 BURNABY'S (Dr. A.) Sermon on the 4th of November 431  
 Burns's (R.) Address to the Shade of Thomson 64  
 C.  
 Cabinet of Mountain Stones, with a Catalogue, G. 237  
 Calcutta, description of 242  
 Calvin, on the political principles of 201  
 CAMERON'S (Mad. de) Letters and Conversations between Young Ladies 463  
 CAMPE'S (J. H.) Elementary Dialogues for Youth 461  
 Cancer of the scrotum, case of 146 E.  
 Canine appetite, case of 504  
 Caravanferai described 243  
 CARICATURE, Fashionable 536  
 Carrier pigeon described 399  
 CARTWRIGHT'S (Maj.) Letter to the Duke of Newcastle 99  
 CASE of the Sugar Colonies 520  
 CASTLE of St. Vallery 183  
 Catalogue of Works relative to the Town of Nuremberg, L. 360  
 Cataract cured by accidental inflammation 40  
 Catarrh,

# I N D E X.

- Catarrh, epidemic** 41  
 ——— observations on 145 E.  
**Catechising, remarks on** 79  
**Catheter, on the introduction of the** 233 G.  
**CATHOLICS of Ireland, Vindication of the** 317  
**Catholics, present, remarks on the** 195, 232  
**Catullus, remarks on** 358  
**Cause and effect, remarks on** 19, 132  
**Cautics, opposite, advantages of** 147  
**Celibacy, observations on** 89  
**Cellular membrane belongs to the absorbent system** 475  
**Celsus's (Bish.) History of the Swedish Church, Sw.** 234  
**CHARGE to the grand Jury of Kirton and Skirbeck** 516  
**Character, attention to, recommended** 192  
**CHARITY School Spelling Book** 346  
 ——— Schools, Address to the Friends and Supporters of 347  
**Charity, observations on** 424 E.  
**Charity schools, advantages of** 317 E.  
 ——— observations on 345  
**CHARLES II., Secret History of the Court and Reign of** 494  
**Charles I., on the character and conduct of** 316  
 ——— reign of 264 E.  
 ——— secret letters in the cabinet of 264 E.  
 ——— II., anecdote of 161  
 ——— reign of 264 E, 494  
**Chatham (lord) prediction of** 64  
**CHAUVELIN (M.) and Lord Grenville, State Papers between** 435  
**Chemistry, On modern Subjects of, G.** 234  
**Chemistry, history of, for 1792** 476  
**Child-murder, observations on** 85, 466 G, *ib.* G.  
**Children, duties of** 88 F.  
 ——— on diseases of 45, 355  
**Chimney, method of extinguishing fire in a** 360  
**China, observations on** 36  
**Chinese, introduction of, into the West-Indies recommended** 522  
**CHIRURGICAL Works of B. Gooch** 145  
**Cholera morbus, observations on** 145 E.  
**Chorea sancti Viti, observations on** 507  
**CHRIST, a Poem on the Birth of** 167  
**Christ, on the character of** 417 E.  
 ——— divinity of 304  
 ——— doctrines of 417 E.  
 ——— miracles of 417 E.  
 ——— resurrection of 192 E.  
 ——— prophecies relating to 417 E.  
**Christian preacher, character of the** 192 E.  
**Christianity, benefits of** 80 E, 167 E, 312  
 ——— consistent with the divine perfections 192 E.  
 ——— early state of, in the north 234 Sw.  
 ——— evidences of 192 E, 306, 390 E, 416  
 ——— observations on 76, 300  
 ——— on the establishment of 416  
**CHRISTIANS, History of the Persecution of** 81  
**Christians, early, authenticity of the writings ascribed to the** 68  
 ——— observations on the 416  
 ——— persecutions of the 417, 419 E.  
**Church, History of the Infallibility of the, G.** 110  
**Church and state, alliance between, unnecessary** 262, 323 E.  
 ——— of England, on a reform of the 310, 323 E.  
 ——— remarks on the 67, 78, 84 E, 111  
 ——— Rome, observations on the 110  
 ——— primitive fathers of the, never existed 68  
 ——— progress of the 110 G.  
**Circle, magic** 471 G.  
**CIVIL Order public Safety** 338  
**Civilization of a savage people** 244  
**CLAPHAM'S (S.) Charity School Sermon** 316  
**CLARENDON (R. V.) on the Revenue and Finances of Ireland** 510  
**Clarendon (earl of) disgrace of the** 497  
 ——— letters from the 265 E.  
**CLARISSA, Young** 463  
**CLAY'S (J.) Elegy on the Murder of Louis XVI.** 299  
**Clergy, advice to the** 76, 360 G.  
 ——— on the education of the 198  
 ——— property of the 90 F.  
 ——— residence of the 196  
 ——— stipends of the 90 F.  
**Clergyman formerly elected by his parishioners in an English village** 38  
**Climate, on obtaining the true temperature of a** 470  
**Coak, native** 470  
**COETLOGON'S (C. E. de) Fourth of November Sermon** 77  
**Cogitation, power of the will over** 133  
**Coining, great improvement of** 478  
 ——— of the ancients 477  
**Coins of the earls of Flanders, of the house of Burgundy** 110 F.  
 ——— tables of 109 F.  
**COLEPEPPER'S (J. S.) Important Facts** 327  
**Colit, Devonshire, case of** 508  
COLLECTION

# I N D E X.

<b>COLLECTION</b> of Addresses to the French Convention	438	<b>Cranium</b> , fractured, with loss of part of the brain	509 E.
<b>Colours</b> , doctrines of the ancients concerning	116	<b>Crimes</b> and punishments, remarks on	36, 97, 262, 371
— observations on	109 F.	<b>CRISIS</b> stated	324
— on artificial mixtures of	471 G.	<b>Critical</b> Epistle on Propertius, L.	358
<b>COLUMBUS</b> : an historical Play	174	— History of the Infallibility of the Church, G.	110
<b>Columbus</b> , account of the voyage of	262 E.	<b>CRITIQUE</b> on the late French Revolution	229
<b>COMMENTS</b> on the proposed War with France	222	<b>Cromwell</b> (O.) life of	264 E.
<b>Commerce</b> , disadvantages of war to	325	<b>Crotchet</b> , on the use of the	153
<b>Commercial</b> treaty, remarks on the	521	<b>Curate</b> , village, Sage, G.	360
<b>Composition</b> , remarks on	165	<b>Currents</b> of the Baltic, Sw.	118.
<b>COMYNS's</b> (Lord chief Bar.) Reports	409	<b>Curves</b> , parallel, Essay on, I.	119
<b>Conception</b> , curious fact relative to	465	<b>D.</b>	
— extra-uterine, case of	45 E.	<b>Dalmatian</b> isles, account of the	376 E.
— mental, remarks on	22	<b>DALRYMPLE</b> on Parliamentary Reform	214
<b>CONCILIATORY</b> Thoughts on the present Crisis	225	<b>Dancing</b> , remarks on	464 E.
<b>Conductor</b> answering the purpose of an electroscope described	465 G.	<b>DANGER</b> of an Invasion from France	327
<b>CONSIDERATIONS</b> on the Case of the confined Debtors	415	<b>DAUBENY's</b> (C.) Sermon on the present Times	430
<b>Constantinople</b> , account of	376 E.	<b>Dead</b> body of a bird converted into fatty matter	272
<b>CONSTITUTION</b> , British, Exposure of Attempts to destroy the	103	<b>Deafness</b> , case of	39
<b>CONST's</b> (F.) Edition of Bott's Poor Laws	411	— cases of, successfully treated	506 E.
<b>CONSUMPTION</b> , On the Nature and Cure of	140	— operation for	112 Dan. E. G.
<b>Consumption</b> , miners, perhaps owing to arsenic	111	<b>Death</b> , narrow escapes from	270
<b>CONTENTMENT</b> , Reasons for	308	— on signs of	109
<b>Contentment</b> , observations on	308, 464 E.	— preparation for, recommended	313 E.
<b>Controversy</b> , religious, remarks on	76, <i>ib.</i>	<b>DEBATES</b> on the King's Speech	202
<b>Conversion</b> of an unbeliever	65	<b>DEBT</b> , Hints on the Laws respecting	57
<b>Convulsions</b> , cold bathing excellent in	45	<b>Debt</b> , on the laws respecting	91, 319, 415, 454
— remedy for	355	<b>DEBTORS</b> , Bill for the Relief of	454
<b>Corinth</b> , early splendour of	261	<b>DECISIONS</b> in the King's Bench on Laws relating to the Poor	410
<b>Cornides</b> (D.) on the Religion of the ancient Hungarians, L.	479	<b>Deer</b> , curious fact relative to	465
<b>Correspondents</b> , answers to	352	<b>DEFENCE</b> of Louis XVI.	349
<b>Corruption</b> of a legislative body, on preventing the	95	— Unitarianism	303
<b>Cough</b> , whooping, observations on	355	<b>Delivery</b> , instrumental, forceps preferable to the vectis in	150
<b>COUNTRY</b> Church, Sermon preached at	317	— not to be deferred in certain cases	149
<b>Coupang</b> , Dutch settlement at Timor	124	— on the use of the crotchet in	153 E.
— latitude and longitude of	<i>ib.</i>	— observations on	149
<b>COURTENAY</b> on the French Revolution	171	<b>Delphos</b> , account of the oracle at	463 E.
<b>Covenants</b> , remarks on	91 F.	<b>Deluge</b> , general, possibility of a	109 F.
<b>COWPER</b> (W.) Poems revised by	297	<b>Deluges</b> of the ancients	109 F.
<b>COWPER's</b> (W.) Homer	1	— remarks on	109 F.
— Power of Grace illustrated	65	<b>Denmark</b> , liberty at present enjoyed in	120
<b>Cranium</b> , fractured, consequences of, fatal after twenty years	42	— marriage a mere civil contract in	91
— observations on	509	<b>Depravity</b> , causes of	339
		<b>Description</b> , remarks on	4

DESCRIB-



# I N D E X.

- DESCRIPTIVE** Sketches 294  
**Despotism**, observations on 51  
**DIALOGUES**, Dramatic, for Young Persons 348  
**Diamond**, classification of the 465 E.  
**Diarrhœa**, case of 507  
**Dice**, on chances with 471 G.  
**DICTIONARY**, Political 352  
**Digestion**, observations on 399  
**Digitalis**, on the use of, in dropsy 507  
**Dignities**, hereditary, remarks on 89  
    — not hereditary at Geneva 89  
**DISCOURSE** on the Advantages of an intimate Connexion between the several Ranks in Society 432  
**Disease**, peculiar, description of a 111  
**DISEASES** of the Army, View of the 143  
**Diseases**, various, observations on 145 E.  
**Disinterestedness**, remarks on - 390  
**Dislocation**, extraordinary, at the ankle joint 146 E.  
**DISSENTERS**, Right of, to complete Toleration 85  
**Dissipation**, remarks on 464 E, 16. E.  
**DISSONANCE** of the four Evangelists 300  
**Divorce** ought to be permitted 92  
**Dolichos pruriens** recommended against worms 507, 508  
**Drama**, on the unities of the 389  
**DRAMATIC** Dialogues, for the Use of young Persons 348  
    — Pieces, from the German 172  
**DREAM** of an Englishman faithful to his King and Country 228  
**Dreaming**, observations on 134  
**Dropsy**, cures of 507, 508  
    — encysted, observations on 509  
    — on the operation of tapping for the 503  
    — use of the digitalis in 507  
    — utility of gum guaiacum in 16.  
**Drowning**, observations on 45  
**Druses**, on the religious books of the 478 G.  
**DRYSDALE'S** (Dr. J.) Sermons 422  
**Drysdale** (Dr. J.) life of 422 E.  
**Duelling**, observations on 58 E, 315 E.  
**Duke of York's Island**, account of the 365  
    — natives of the 366  
**DURHAM'S** (Bish. of) Charge 74  
**DUTIES** of Man 338  
**DYER** (G.) on Subscription to the thirty-nine Articles 83  
    — Poems by 165  
**Dynameter**, new, Ramsden's, account of 472  
**Dysentery**, observations on 145 E, 505  
**Dyspepsia**, remarks on 399  
**Dysury**, fixed air efficacious in 233 G.  
    E.  
**Earth**, new kind of, obtained from bones 235  
    — of alum, mode of purifying 16.  
    — gems 476  
    — (the) contains central fire 292  
    — effects following the revolution which formed our continents on 114  
    — has not been in its present state from any very remote period 116, 235  
    — history of 114, 235, 478 G.  
    — on the population of 236  
    — the present surface of, not secure from sudden destruction 115  
**Earthquakes** felt in England 275  
    — observations on 114, 275, 293  
**Ease**, observations on 309  
**EAST-INDIA** Stock, Letter to the Proprietors of 522  
**East-India** company, remarks on the 523, 16., 524, 16.  
**EASY** Introduction to general Knowledge 347  
**Ecclesiastical** History, Vol. XVI. G. 254  
**Ecclesiastical** establishments, observations on 75, 81, 83, 196 E, 323, 336 E.  
    — government, remarks on 51, 196  
**ECCLESIASTICS**, French, Epistle to the, F. 231  
**Education**, remarks on 345, 424 E, 462, 464 E.  
**Edward the black prince**, life of 264 E.  
    — II, life of 16. E.  
**EDWARDS'S** (Dr. T.) Sermon, Strictures on 71  
    — (G. N.) Letter to the Secretary of the New Town Society 318  
**Egypt** description of 26 Dan. E.  
    — early state of 258 E.  
    — on the religion of 258  
**EIRENOPHILOS** on the Advantages of an intimate Connexion between the several Ranks in Society 432  
**Electricity**, ague cured by 44  
    — animal, observations on 112, 466  
    — gutta serena cured by 47  
    — passes on the surface of conductors 466  
    — tumour removed by 507 E.  
    — why received or emitted at a considerable distance by pointed bodies 476  
**ELZEVY** on the Murder of Louis XVI. 299  
**ELZE**

# I N D E X.

- ELEMENTARY** Dialogues for Youth 461
- ELEMENTS** of the Philosophy of the human Mind 17, 132
- Elis**, early refinement of 261
- Elizabeth** (queen) fragments respecting 264 E.
- Elvert's** (Dr. E. G.) Cases in Medical Jurisprudence. G. 466
- Emendorff**, translation of a piece of 172 E.
- EMIGRANTS**, Original Correspondence of the, F. 487
- Encaustic painting**, species of, recovered by Mr. Wedgwood 287 note.
- ENGLAND**, Important Facts submitted to the People of 327
- Loyal Address to the People of 337
- Plain Address to the common Sense of the People of 339
- England**, On the executive Power of the King of, L. 238
- England**, early state of Christianity in 234 Sw.
- good old custom in 94
- on the laws of 57, 58, 184, 187, 319, 322, 411, 415, 454
- state of the poor in 311
- pretext for the maintenance of a standing army in 494
- tracts relative to the history of 264
- English**, first settlement of the, on the continent of America 262
- metres, observations on 391
- on the conduct of the 414
- ENGLISHMAN**, Dream of an 228
- Entails**, observations on 90 F, 185 E.
- Entomology**, history of the science of 395 E.
- Ephrem Syrus**, on the life of 478 G.
- Epilepsy** occasioned by the repelling of eruptions cured by salivation 233 G.
- remarks on 501 E.
- Equality**, misrepresentation of the term by enemies to reform 91, 202, 226, 311
- observations on 87, 91, 97, 202, 311, 336 E, 444, 446
- Erysipelas**, observations on 343
- Escapes** of Frederic II, G. 360
- ESSAY** on civil Liberty 330
- ESSAYS** on the Lives and Writings of Fletcher and Thomson 59
- Essex**, life of the earl of 264 E.
- Establishments**, religious, remarks on 75, 81, 83, 196 E, 336 E.
- Etruria**, early progress of the arts in 287 note.
- EUROPE**, Ancient, History of 257
- Geographic Chart of 56
- Modern, Rise and Progress of Freedom in 332
- EUROPEAN Powers**, Word of Advice to 339
- EVANSON** (E.) on the Dissonance of the Evangelists 300
- Evaporation**, experiments and observations on 279, 353
- EVENING** Walk 296
- EVERY** One has his Fault 458
- Evil**, benefits of 314 E, 424 E.
- not to be done that good may come 315
- Ewald** (J.) Works of, Dan. 119
- EXAMPLE** of France a Warning to Britain 447
- Exanthemata**, repelled, epilepsy produced by, cured by salivation 233 G.
- Exchaquer's** Relievs of various Parts of Switzerland 118
- EXCURSION** to the Peak of Teneriffe 249
- Executions**, number of, at Amsterdam 253
- EXPEDIENCY** of a Revolution considered 227
- Experiment**, remarks on 447
- EXPOSURE** of Attempts to destroy the British Constitution 103
- Eye**, case of extirpation of the, in consequence of a puncture 146 E.
- obstinate pains in the, cured by mercurials 233 G.
- F.**
- Fable** on flattery 382 E.
- Faith**, on articles of 111
- climatic difference of 478 G.
- society for propagating the 52
- true, long lost 67 E.
- what 74
- False alarm**, on the propagation of 207
- Falseness**, remarks on 315 E.
- Fame**, how to be obtained 276
- FASHIONABLE** Caricature 536
- FAST**, Discourse intended for the 432
- Form of Prayer for the 433
- Fasting**, public, remarks on 432
- Fate**, on the doctrine of 58 E.
- FAWCETT's** (J.) Sermon before the University of Cambridge 314
- FEMALE** Mentor 463
- Mind, Letters on the 525
- Fenelon**, life of 463 E.
- FENNEL's** Review of the Proceedings at Paris 126
- FERGUSON** (R.) on a Reform of the Representation of Scotland 216
- Ferriere's** (de) Saint-Flour and Justina, F. 120
- Feudal system**, remarks on the 90 F, 185 E, 357 G.
- Fever**, catarrhal, observations on 145 E.
- cautions against antimonials in 145
- contagious in warm climates 144
- Fever,

## I N D E X.

- |  |               |   |          |
|--|---------------|---|----------|
| Fever, epidemic, account of an             | 466 G.        | FRANCE, Letter to a foreign Nobleman      |          |
| — hectic, observations on                  | 141           | on the present Situation of               | 456      |
| — intermittent, cured by electricity       | 44            | — Letters to the Philosophers and         |          |
| — observations on                          | 143 E, 144    | Politicians of                            | 305      |
| — only one species of                      | 144           | — Policy of a War with                    | 326      |
| — remittent, prevalence of                 | 143           | — Sentiments on a War with                | 327      |
| — scarlet, observations on                 | 355 G, 501 E. | — Speech on a War with                    | 325      |
| — yellow, of the West-Indies, not          |               | — View of the actual Force and            |          |
| a peculiar kind                            | 144           | Resources of                              | 329      |
| — not                                      |               | — War with! or who pays the               |          |
| so fatal as supposed                       | ib.           | Reckoning?                                | 326      |
| FIOTT's (J.) Letter to the Proprietors     |               | France, affair of the 2d of September in  | 577      |
| of East-India Stock                        | 524           | — conduct of Britain towards              | 435.     |
| Fire in a chimney, method of extinguish-   |               | — letters of the emigrants from           | 488      |
| ing  | 360           | — on effecting a counter-revolution       |          |
| — of London                                | 499           | in  | 210      |
| Fish, remarkable failure of a species of   | 277           | — the capacity of, for defence,           | 223      |
| Fishes, natural history of                 | 395 E.        | — constitution of                         | 536      |
| — new species of, described                | 465 G.        | — execution of the king of                |          |
| FIVE great Epochs of the Duchy of Bra-     |               | 323, 326, 349, 401, 413, 437              |          |
| bant, F.                                   | 481           | — late government of                      | 88,      |
| — Minutes Advice to the People of          |               | 92, 94                                    |          |
| Great-Britain                              | 102           | — paper currency of                       | 329      |
| Flattery, direct and indirect, distinction |               | — present state of                        | 329,     |
| between                                    | 133           | 443, 447, 450 E, 453 E.                   |          |
| — fable on                                 | 382 E.        | — revolution in                           | 58 E,    |
| Fletcher (A.) of Saltoun, account of       | 59            | 84 E, 99, 100, 101, 127, 201, 224,        |          |
| FLORIAN's Gonzalva of Cordova              | 178           | 229 E, 230, 313, 321, 323, 327,           |          |
| Fœtus, extrauterine, observations on the   |               | 332, 335, 336, 413, 437 E, 479, 487       |          |
|  | 147 E.        | — outlines of a civil government          |          |
| FOLLY, Fugitive of                         | 464           | for                                       | 328      |
| FOOD for National Penitence                | 432           | — prophecy of the 6th century re-         |          |
| Food, on the preservation of               | 109 F.        | lating to                                 | 493      |
| Force, on the exercise of                  | 189           | — state papers relative to                | 435 E,   |
| Forceps, preferable to the vectis, in in-  |               | 438 E, 440 E.                             |          |
| strumental delivery                        | 150           | — war with, inexpedient to Great-         |          |
| Foreigners, naturalization of, advanta-    |               | Britain 102, 202 E, 208, 222, 223,        |          |
| geous                                      | 88 F.         | 225, 325—7.                               |          |
| FORM of Prayer for the general Fast        | 433           | FREDERIC II, Escapes of, G.               | 360      |
| Formosa, dangerousness of the coasts of    |               | FREDERIC II, instances of a want of skill |          |
|  | 359           | in physiognomy in                         | 267      |
| FORKAOL, corruptions of                    | 237 L.        | FREEDOM, Rise and Progress of, in         |          |
| FORTIFICATION, Complete Treatise on, F.    | 357           | modern Europe                             | 332      |
| — New Elements of, F.                      | 356           | — Triumph of, anticipated                 | 259      |
| FORTNIGHT's Ramble to the Lakes            | 37            | Freedom of inquiry, folly to attempt to   |          |
| FORTY Stripes, save none for Satan         | 306           | suppress                                  | 81       |
| Fossils, observations on                   | 109           | — the Brabantines, at an early            |          |
| FOX (C. J.) Letter to                      | 211           | period                                    | 482, 486 |
| — (W.) on a French War                     | 224           | FREEMAN (Hildebrand) Memoirs of           | 535      |
| FOX's (C. J.) Letter to the Electors of    |               | FRENCH, Address to the patriotic So-      |          |
| Westminster                                | 206           | cieties of the                            | 231      |
| — &c. Answer to                            | 320           | — Ecclesiastics, Letter to the, F.        |          |
| FOX (Mr.) remarks on                       | 60, 210, 211  | ib.                                       |          |
| FRANCE, Addresses to the National          |               | — King's Death, Poem on the               | 458      |
| Convention of, &c.                         | 438           | — Nation, Address to the                  | 328      |
| — Comments on the proposed                 |               | — Revolution, Poetical Essay on           |          |
| War with                                   | 222           | the                                       | 171      |
| — Danger of an Invasion from               | 327           | FRIEND's (W.) Peace and Union             | 100      |
| — Example of, a Warning to                 |               | commended                                 | 321      |
| Britain                                    | 447           |   |          |



# I N D E X.

- FREESTON'S** (A.) Discourse on Laws 317  
**Friction**, medical, utility of 507  
**Friendship**, Tokens of, amongst the Orientals, G. 111  
**Friendship**, observations on 192 E.  
**FUGITIVE** of Folly 464  
**Funeral** at Tournay in the 4th century described 110 F.  
 — of queen Elizabeth 264 E.
- G.**
- Gamblers**, history of several 535 E.  
**Game-laws** defended 338 E.  
 — observations on 322  
**Gaming**, remarks on 535  
**Gastric juice** recommended in dyspepsia 400  
**Gauls**, account of the 109 F.  
**GENERAL** Knowledge, Easy Introduction to 347  
**General principles**, on the use and abuse of 140 E.  
 — terms, remarks on 23, 25  
**Geneva**, account of the inhabitants of 377  
 — described 377 E.  
 — on the present state of 450  
**Genoa**, on the character of the people of 379  
**GEOGRAPHICAL** Chart of Europe 56  
 — Questions and Answers 347  
**Geography** of the Greeks and Romans, G. 356  
**Geology**, system of, continued 114, 235, 467  
**GEORGE III.** Address to the disaffected Subjects of 103  
**GERMAN**, Dramatic Pieces from the 172  
 — Gil Blas 458  
**Germans**, ancient, manners and customs of the 382 E.  
**Germany**, Antiquities discovered in, G. 119  
**Gesner**, translation of a piece of 172 E.  
**Gestation**, extra-uterine, case of 45 E.  
**GIFFORD'S** (J.) Plain Address to the People of England 339  
**GIL Blas**, The German 458  
**GILLESPIE** (E.) on the criminal Laws 58  
**Gland**, prostatic, effects of a disease of the 507  
**Glands** of the throat, extraordinary enlargement of the 506  
**Gnostics**, observations on the 68, 70  
**God**, knowledge of, not to be acquired but by revelation 74  
 — on the goodness of 192 E.  
 — worship of 16 E.  
 — proofs of the existence of 416 E.  
**Goethe**, translation of a piece of 172 E.  
**Golden Mirror**, G. 480  
**GONZALVA** of Cordova 178
- GOOCH'S** (B.) **Chirurgical Works** 145  
**Gospels** of Matthew, Mark, and Luke forged 302, 303  
**Gottbard** (St.) Explanation of the View of, F. 118  
 — Petrographical Map of 119  
 — View of 118  
**GOUT**, Treatise on 340  
**Gout**, cause of 341  
 — cure of 340, 342  
**GOVERNMENT**, Importance of preserving inviolable the system of 332  
**Government**, artifices of 324  
 — ecclesiastical, remarks on 51, 428  
 — modern, on the principles and forms of 84 E.  
 — observations on 59, 80, 64, 77, 87, 95, 188, 200, 202, 214, 219, 221, 231 E, 262, 263, 312, 315, 316, 328, 332, 333, 429, 515  
 — on submission to 201, 202, *ib.*, 429  
 — origin of 317  
 — state of, amongst the ancients 258 E.
- Gowrie's** conspiracy 264 E.  
**GRACE**, Power of, illustrated 65  
**Granites** contain metals and precious stones 117  
**Gravel**, urinary, means of preventing 396, 398  
 — observations on 395  
 — remote cause of 396  
**Gravitation**, theory of 467  
**Greece**, ancient history of 259  
 — travels through 376 E.  
**Greek islands**, travels through the 16 E.  
**GREGORY'S** (Dr.) Essays, Remarks on the Introduction to 129  
**Grellmann's** (Prof.) Present State of the Papal Territories, G. 358  
**GRENADA** reconquered 178  
**Grenada**, account of the siege of 179  
**GRENVILLE** (Lord) Letter to 442  
 — State Papers between M. Chauvelin and 435  
**Grosvenor East-Indiaman**, on the fate of the people on board the 123  
**Guaiacum**, useful in dropsy 507 E.  
**Gunpowder plot**, history of the 264 E.  
**GURNEY'S** (J.) Trial of Paine 185  
**Gutta serena**, remedies for 47  
**Gwalior**, description of the fortress of, and the manner in which it was taken 248 E.
- H.**
- Habit**, observations on 133  
**Haddocks**, remarkable failure of 277  
**Hæmoptysis**, observations on 36, 140  
**Hainault**, life of the countess of 464 E.  
**Hair**

# I N D E X.

- Hair powder used by the natives of an island in the South Sea 366  
 — remarkable change of colour in 505  
 HAMILTON's (J. E.) Strictures on Primitive Christianity 67  
 Hamlet, on the character of Polonius in 460  
 HAPPINESS and Rights, Abridgment of 340  
 Happiness, means of attaining 18, 424, 459  
 — of a nation, test of the 93  
 HARDY's (H.) Vision from the Lord God Almighty 352  
 HARLEIAN Miscellany, Selection from the 264  
 HAYES's (S.) Sermon, at St. Margaret's 201  
 Head, case of a painful affection of the 41  
 — effects of compression of the arteries in disorders of the 42  
 HEALTH, Restorer of 343  
 Hearing, natural defect of the organ of 39  
 HEARN (Dr. T.) on the Rise and Progress of Freedom in modern Europe 332  
 Heart, on the nerves of the 234  
 Heat, light produced by 274  
 Heavenly birth, account of a 65  
 Hebrew ceased to be the living language of the jews during the babylonish captivity 190  
 Hebrews, early state of the 258 E.  
 Hemisphere, southern, chart of the 362 E.  
 Hemoptysis, remedy for 36  
 Hemorrhage and purple spots without fever 501  
 Henry VIII, love-letters and epistles from 264 E.  
 Hepatitis, observations on 507 E.  
 Hereditary dignities, remarks on 89  
 Heresies, ancient, observations on 67 E, 68  
 Herman of Saxony, inquiry concerning 110 F.  
 Hermaphrodite sheep 465 G.  
 Hernia, peculiar kind of 146 E.  
 — remarks on 233 G, 503, 507, 508  
 HERON's (R.) Translation of Niebuhr's Travels 26  
 Herpetic affections, observations on some 500  
 Herrmann's (B. F. J.) Account of Russia, G. 356  
 Herschel (Dr.) account of 109 F.  
 HEY's (R.) Happiness and Rights, Abridgment of 340  
 Hindoo almanacs, account of some 278 E.  
 — year, length and divisions of the 278 E.  
 Hindostan, account of 242  
 Hindostan, state of the arts in 248 E.  
 HINTON's (J.) Vindication of the Dissenters in Oxford 198  
 HISTORY of ancient Europe 257  
 History and fiction, on the union of 381  
 HONGES's (W.) Travels in India 248  
 Hoffinger's (Dr. J. G.) Medical Works, G. 111  
 HOGARTH illustrated 280  
 Hogarth, character of, as a painter 281  
 — explanation of a print of 282  
 Holland, on the present state of 208 E, 223  
 HOLLAND's (P.) Sermons on practical Subjects 191  
 Holland (P.) short account of 195  
 HOMER, New Translation of 1  
 Hooping cough, observations on 355  
 Horne (bish.) character of 307  
 Horse-mills, improvement of 474  
 HORSLEY's (Bish.) Sermon on the 30th of January 199  
 Hospital for miners, plan of an 112 G.  
 HOULSTON (W.) on the Venereal Disease 400  
 House of correction at Brunswick 253  
 — Riga 254  
 HOWARD on foreign Prisons and Hospitals, Appendix to 252  
 Howard, eulogy of 312  
 Hufeland (Dr. C. W.) on the Small-Pox, 2d Edit. G. 355  
 Humerus of a child torn from the scapula 505  
 Humility, observations on 424 E.  
 — verses on 297  
 Hummel's (B. F.) Antiquities discovered in Germany, G. 119  
 Hungarians, ancient, On the Religion of the, L. 479  
 Hungarians, origin of the 16.  
 Hungary, On the Diets of, L. 238  
 — Extent of the regal Power in, L. 16.  
 — Representations and Protocols of the States and Orders of, L. 16.  
 — Traces of Assemblies of the People in, L. 239  
 HUNTER's (Capt. J.) Journal of Transactions at Port Jackson 361  
 HUNTINGTON's (W.) Forty Stripes save none for Satan 306  
 HURDIS's (J.) Reflections on the Commencement of a new Year 307  
 HURLSTONE's (T.) Just in Time 175  
 Hufschke's (J. G.) Critical Epistle on Propertius, L. 358  
 Hydrocele, case of 233 G.  
 — of the tunica vaginalis cured 147  
 — remarks on 233 G.  
 Hydrocephalus internus, cases of 146 E, 355 G, 502 E.  
 Hydrophobia, observations on 502, 509  
 Hygology,

# I N D E X,

Hygology, laws of	279	Invention, art of, how acquired	134
Hygrometry, laws of	<i>ib.</i>	Inventions of the Belgians	110 L.
Hyoscyamus recommended	355	Ipecacuanha, on the use of, in dysentery	505
I.			
Ice, application of, recommended in hernia	503	IRELAND, Sketch of the Revenue and Finances of	510
Ichthyology, history of the science of	395 E.	——— Vindication of the Catholics of	317
Ideas, on the association of	132, 388, 390	IRELAND's (J.) Hogarth illustrated	280
Ignition, experiments on	273	Ireland, expedition of Henry II to	154
——— produced by percussion, owing to condensation	275	——— history of the parliament of	155, 331
Iliac passion, cases of	508 E.	——— law against witchcraft still on the statute book of	161
Imagination and feasibility, connexion between	139	——— mode of passing laws in	156
——— observations on	138, 139	——— on the conduct of the catholics of	318
Imogen, on the character of	464 E.	——— disturbances in	202 E.
IMPORTANCE of preserving inviolable the System of Government	332	——— present state of	327
IMPORTANT Facts submitted to the People of England	327	——— revenue of	510
Impotence, case of	465 G.	——— state of the catholics in	331
Impulse the grand cause of terrestrial phenomena	468	IRISH Parliament, History of the Transactions of the	153
INCHEALD's (Mrs.) Every One has his Fault	458	Iron, cast, on the conversion of, into malleable	273
INDIA, Travels in	241	——— ore, bog, crystallized like basalt	109
Indian corn, produce of, at Norfolk Island	364	Irritability maintained by the excitement of animal electricity	467
Indigestion, remarks on	399	Is all we want worth a civil War?	225
Industry, on schools of	345	Italian, rules for the pronunciation of	348 E. I.
Infallibility of the Church, History of the, G.	110	Italy, commonness of murder in	379
Infanticide, observations on	85,	——— punishment for murder in	379
	466 G, <i>ib.</i> G.	——— travels through	376 E.
Infants have the organs of sense and vital parts most perfect	39	JACOBIN and other Societies of the French, Address to the	231
Influenza described	40 L, 41	Jacobins, account of the society of	127
——— treatment of	40, 41	James I, reign of	264 E.
Ink, chinese, composition of	36	JAMESON's (Dr. T.) Geographical Chart of Europe	36
——— remedy for spitting of blood	36	Japan, climate of	360
INNOVATION: a Poem	299	——— observations on	359
INOCULATION, Verses on the beneficial Effects of	297	——— voyage to	359 Sw.
Inoculation, advantages of	297 E, 355 G.	JAUFFRET's (L. F.) Trial of Lewis XVI, F.	400
INQUIRY into the Difference among the Whig Party	320	Jesuits, History of the, G.	354
——— remote Cause of Gravell	395	Jesuits, catalogue of works respecting the	355 G.
Inquiry, on freedom of	81	——— on the suppression of the	354
Inquisition at Rome	52, 54	Jews, colony of, long settled in Malabar	421
Insects, natural history of	395 E.	——— new sect among the	240
INSTRUCTOR, Amusing, E. I.	348	JOCKEY Club, Minor	534
INTEREST of Great Britain respecting the French War	224	JOHNSON (C. W.) on the Case of the confined Debtors	415
Intestinal canal, remedy for debility of the	355	JONES (D.) on the Office of a Minister	78
Intoxication, mode of producing, in Arabia	35	Joseph II, some account of	485
		Josephus, on some passages in	478 G.
		JOURNAL of Transactions at Port Jackson	361
		for	<i>Journal</i>



# I N D E X.

- Journal des Sçavans* discontinued 479  
 Julian an evidence of the truth of christianity 417  
 JURIDICAL Essays 183  
 JUST in Time, a comic opera 175  
 Justice, on the administration of 92, 97
- K.**
- Kennicott (Dr.) life of 478 G.  
 Kidney, disease of the 504  
 KING (Mr.) Speech of, at Egham 336  
 King, on the irresponsibility of a 404, &c.  
 ——— powers of a 60, 95, 96, *ib.*, 239  
 KING's (The) Message, Mr. Pitt's Speech on the 437  
 ——— Speech, Debates on 202  
 Kings fond of war, and why 324  
 ——— rule by divine right 200  
 ——— should not be permitted even to do good unconstitutionally 238  
 KNIGHT's (E. C.) Life of the Romans 381  
 Knout, on the punishment of the 255  
 Knowledge, observations on 360 G.  
 KNOWLES's (Dr.) Primitive Christianity, strictures on 67  
 Kolpin's Last Illness of Dr. von Berger, G. 112  
 ——— &c. translated, with Remarks, Dan. *ib.*  
 Kovachich (M. G.) on Assemblies of the People in Hungary, L. 239  
 Küster's (C. D.) Escapes of Frederic II, G. 360  
 KUNIGGE's (Bar.) German Gil Blas 458
- L.**
- LAKES, Fortnight's Ramble to the 37  
 Language, observations on 24, 136  
 ——— philosophical, remarks on 140  
 Latin poets, on the style of the 358 L.  
 Laudohn (field-marshal) character of 271  
 ——— life of 266  
 Law, on the fictions of 185 E.  
 ——— redundant diction of 185 E.  
 LAWS, criminal, Disquisition upon 58  
 ——— Discourse on 317  
 Laws, observations on 58, 97, 317 E, 425  
 ——— of England, remarks on 57, 58, 184  
 ——— respecting debt 57  
 Lawfuits, observations on 92  
 Lawyers, on the chicanery of 338 E.  
 LAYTON's (T.) Two Discourses 429  
 Lead, on some ores of 465 G.  
 Learning, importance of 192 E.  
 Legislators, on preventing the corruption of 95  
 LEON's (Bish. of) Epistle to the French Ecclesiastics, F. 231  
 Lepra græcorum, observations on the 501  
 LETTER on the present Associations 324  
 ——— to a foreign Nobleman on the present Situation of France 450  
 ——— Citizen Paine 519  
 ——— Lord Grenville 442  
 ——— Stanhope 57  
 ——— Mr. Bryant 422  
 ——— de Maleherbes, F. 412  
 ——— Fox 211, 320  
 ——— Pitt 444  
 ——— the Electors of Westminster 206  
 ——— French Ecclesiastics in England, F. 231  
 ——— Proprietors of East India Stock 524  
 ——— Rev. C. Wyvill 318  
 ——— Secretary of the New Town Society 328  
 LETTERS and Conversations between young Ladies 463  
 ——— between Bish. Barrington and Percival Stockdale 351  
 ——— on the female Mind 525  
 ——— to the Philosophers and Politicians of France 305  
 LEVESQUE's (M.) Description of Rome, F. 48  
 LEVI's (M.) Plan of Reform, F. 230  
 LEWELYN's (W.) Appeal to Man 518  
 LEWIS Capet, Reasons for wishing to preserve the Life of 413  
 ——— XVI, Trial at large of 409  
 ——— of, F. 400  
 ——— see also LOUIS XVI.  
 Lewis XIV and Lewis XVI compared 326  
 ——— XVI, anecdotes of 412  
 ——— on the conduct and execution of 323, 326, 349, 401—9, 412—14  
 LIANCOURT's (de la R.) Letter to Mr. de Maleherbes, F. 412  
 Libel, on the law of 187  
 LIBERTY and Equality 104  
 ——— civil, Essay on 330  
 ——— of the Press, Resolutions of the Friends to the 451  
 Liberty, observations on 97, 239, 336 E, 360 G, 446  
 ——— of the press, remarks on the 96, 187, 228, 451 E.  
 ——— present state of, in Denmark 120  
 ——— principles of, to be sought in the anglo saxon government 219  
 ——— tree of 128  
 LIDDON's (J.) Sunday School Sermon 80  
 LIFE of the late Earl of Barrymore 532  
 Life, benefits of the evils of 314 E.  
 ——— 421 E.  
 ——— moral reflections on the shortness of 307 E.  
 ——— Life,

# I N D E X.

- Life, observations on** 424  
**Light, appearance of rays of, issuing from**  
    a luminous body, to half-shut eyes, ex-  
    plained 471  
    — perhaps identical with heat 274  
**LIPSCOMB'S (W.) Verses on the bene-**  
    ficial Effects of Inoculation 297  
**Liturgies, advantages of** 78  
**Liver, diseased, cases of** 44 E, 507 E.  
    — observations on the 106  
**LIVES of Fletcher and Thomson** 59  
**London, fire of** 499  
**Lord's supper, observations on the**  
    111 G.  
**Lotteri (A.) on parallel Curves, I.** 119  
**LOUNDON (Field-Marshal) Life of, F.**  
    265  
**LOUIS XVI, Defence of** 349  
    — Elegy on the Murder of 299  
    — Reflections on the Murder  
    of 434  
    — see also LEWIS XVI.  
**LOUSIAD. Canto IV.** 168  
**LOYAL Address to the People of England**  
    337  
    — Subject 317  
**LUCAS'S (W.) Sermon before the Lord**  
    Mayor 77  
**Lucknow described** 255  
**LUNGS, on the Consumption of the** 140  
**Lungs, benefits of a seton in a disease of**  
    the 147 E.  
**Luxury, observations on** 391 E.
- M.
- MACAULAY'S (A.) Sermon on Sunday**  
    Schools 80  
**MADAGASCAR, Voyage to** 35  
**Madeira, Teneriffe wine sold for** 123  
**Madras, description of** 241  
**Magazine of ancient northern Litera-**  
    ture, Vol. II. G. 479  
    — Philosophico-theological, G.  
    478  
**Magistrate, importance of the office of a**  
    77 E.  
    — on the functions of a 97  
**Magnetic needle, cause of the variation**  
    of the 293  
    — on the variation of the  
    465 G.  
**MALESHERBES (de) Letter to, F.** 412  
**MALOUET'S Defence of Louis XVI.** 349  
**MAN, Duties of** 338  
    — Wrongs of 337  
**Man, gradual progress towards perfec-**  
    tion of 25  
    — naturally inclined to society  
    258, 424  
    — on the difference of complexion in  
    419  
    — rights of 94, 188, 239,  
    336 E.
- Man, on the state of, in society** 308  
    — origin of 478 G.  
    — present habitation of, not secure  
    from sudden destruction 115  
**MANNERS, Modern** 456  
**Mannert's (C.) Geography of the Greeks**  
    and Romans, Part III. G. 356  
**MARCUS Flaminius** 381  
**Margaret of Anjou, history of** 464 E.  
**Marriage, observations on** 91, 93,  
    464 E.  
**Marshes, observations on some** 470  
**MARSH'S (H.) Authenticity of the five**  
    Books of Moses 190  
**Marsyas, statue of, why placed at the**  
    entrance of the forum 386  
**MARTIUS Modernus's Political Essays**  
    338  
**Mascagni on Marshes, Part II, I.** 470  
**MATERIAL and intellectual Worlds**  
    compared 167  
**Mathematical Essays, G.** 471  
**Matthæus's (C. F.) Edition of Zigabe-**  
    nus on the Gospels, Gr. L. 233  
**Mausoleum, indian** 246  
**Measles, observations on** 355 G.  
**Measure, universal, proceedings for ob-**  
    taining an 353  
**Measures, tables of** 109 F.  
**Mechain's astronomical and nautical Al-**  
    manac for 1793, F. 471  
**Mechel's View of St. Gotthard** 118  
**MEDICAL Society of London, Memoirs**  
    of the, Vol. III. 39, 500  
**Medical Jurisprudence, Cases in, G.** 466  
    — Museum, G. 233  
    — Polity and Jurisprudence, Mate-  
    rials for, G. 466  
    — Works of Dr. J. G. Hoffinger,  
    G. 111  
**Medicine, account of a society for mutual**  
    improvement in 233 G.  
    — on the external application of  
    355  
**Melancthon, life of, promised** 80  
**Melanderhielm on the Importance of astro-**  
    nomical Observations, Sw. 118  
**MEMOIRS of Hildebrand Freeman, Esq.**  
    535  
    — the Medical Society of  
    London, Vol. III. 39, 500  
**Memory, good, qualities of a** 137  
    — how improved 137  
    — observations on 136, 138  
    — strictures on artificial helps to  
    138  
**Menstruation, irregular, cases of** 504  
    — very late, case of 508  
**MENTAL Improvement for a Young**  
    Lady 464  
**MENTOR, Female** 463  
**Mercury, transit of** 109 F.  
**Metallic pyrophorus** 235  
**Metals,**

# I N D E X.

- Metals**, on some precipitates from 109 F.  
 — the weight acquired in the calcination of 277  
**Metaphysics**, observations on 17, 18  
**Meteorological observations** 109 F, 117, 273 E, 277 E, 362 E.  
 — remarks on 470  
**Methodists**, on the missions of the, to the negroes 310  
**Metzger's** (Dr.) **Materials for Medical Polity and Jurisprudence**, G. 466  
**Meyer's** (J. H.) **Picturesque Tour in Switzerland**, G. 119  
**MIDWIFERY**, **Essays on the Practice of** 148  
**Midwifery**, importance of the art of 148  
**Mild measures more efficacious than forcible ones** 244  
**Militia**, good, advantage of a 59  
 — on calling out the 203, 207  
 — the promotion of officers in the 99  
**Mills**, horse, improvement of 474  
**MIND**, female, **Letters on the** 525  
 — **Philosophy of the** 17, 132  
**Mind incapable of calling up a particular thought** 133  
 — on the study of 18  
**Mineralogical tour** 109 F.  
**Mineralogy**, history of, for 1792 475  
 — observations on 237 G.  
 — specimens of stones for the study of 237  
**Minerals**, on some precipitations from 109 F.  
 — systematical arrangement of 109 F.  
**Miners**, consumption of, perhaps owing to arsenic 111  
 — plan of an hospital for 112 G.  
**Minor Jockey Club** 535  
**Mirabeau**, remarks on 229  
**Miracle**, mohammedan 29  
**Miracles**, defence of 306  
 — observations on 478 G.  
**Mirour**, Golden, G. 480  
**Missionaries**, cause of the ill success of 416  
**MODERN Manners** 456  
**Modesty**, observations on 464 E.  
**Mohammedans bury by the way-side** 243  
**Molybdæna**, fine blue colour produced from 235  
**Monarchy**, observations on 60, 413  
**Money-lenders**, arts of 464 E.  
**Montucci's** (Dr. A.) **Amusing Instructor**, E. I. 348  
**Moon**, height of the atmosphere of the 277  
 — on two variable spots in the 465 G.  
 — total eclipse of the 109 F.  
**Moors**, character and manners of the 179 E. F.  
 — history of the, in Spain 179 E. F.  
**Morbus niger**, case of 506 E.  
**MORE** **Reasons for a Reform in Parliament** 319  
**MORE's** (Miss H.) **Village Politics** 519  
**MORTON's** (T.) **Columbus** 174  
**Moses** the author of the Pentateuch 190  
**MOSTYN's** (J.) **Sermon on the Death of Col. Myddelton** 313  
**Motion**, muscular, observations on 112  
**MOUNTMORE'S** (Lord) **Transactions of the Irish Parliament** 153  
**Muenchhausen** (P. A. F. von) on **Feudal Lords and Vassals**, G. 357  
**MUNN's** (R.) **Loyal Subject** 317  
**Murder**, cases of, investigated 466 G, 466 G.  
 — commonness of, in Italy 379  
 — punishment for 379  
**Muscles** have no nerves 234  
**Muscular motion**, observations on 112  
**Music**, remarks on 464 E.  
**My Agony of thirty-eight Hours**, F. 527  
**MYDDELTON** (Col.) **Sermon on the Death of** 313  
**Mypticism**, observations on 360 G.  

## N.

**NAPLETON's** (Dr. J.) **Sermon before the Governors of the Radcliffe Infirmary** 314  
**NARCOTIC**, and **Private Theatricals** 178  
**National happiness**, test of 93  
**NATURAL History**, **New System of** 398  
**Natural Philosophy**, **Observations and Discoveries in**, G. 465  
**Natural philosophy**, history of, for 1792 476  
**Nature**, on the study of 464 E.  
 — reciprocation between the three kingdoms of 105, 476  
**Navy**, British, plan for furnishing with timber 101  
**NECESSITY** of a **Reform in Parliament** 212  
**Necessity**, on the doctrine of 132  
**Necker** (Mr.) on the conduct of 450  
**Negroes** not a separate race of men 419  
 — on the mission of the methodists to the 310  
**Nehallenia**, the goddess, **memoir on** 110 F.  
**Nepean Island**, account of 368  
**Nerves**, experiments on the eighth pair of the 502  
 — observations on the 112  
 — on the power of the 234 L.  
 — properly belong to the arteries, not to the muscles 234  
**Nervous**



# I N D E X.

**Nervous disorders, new mode of treating** 42  
**Netherlands, ancient inhabitants of the** 109 L.  
 ——— documents relative to the history of the 110 F.  
 ——— on some coins of the 110 F.  
**New System of Natural History** 391  
**New South Wales, account of** 362  
 ——— course to Europe from 367 E.  
 ——— natives of 361, 371 E, 373 E.  
 ——— proceedings at 361  
 ——— vocabulary of the language of 371 E.  
**Newspapers, venality of** 338  
**NIEBUHR's Travels through Arabia** 26  
**Nitre, large dose of, taken by mistake** 505  
**Nobility, remarks on** 80, 357  
**Nootka, advantages of the settlement at** 473 F.  
**Nordenaukar on the Currents of the Baltic, Sw.** 118  
**Norfolk Island, account of** 364, 370  
 ——— settlement on 367  
**Northern Literature, Ancient, Vol. II. G.** 479  
**Novels, remarks on** 464 E.  
**Nuremberg, Catalogue of Works relative to the Town of, L.** 360

## O.

**Observations and Discoveries in Natural Philosophy, G.** 465  
**Odes, unrhymed, remarks on** 391  
**Officers, military, danger of ministers being permitted to cashier at will** 218  
**Olympic games, origin of the** 260 E.  
 ——— utility of the 260  
**Omphalocele successfully treated** 503  
**Ophthalmies, observations on** 355  
**OPINIONS delivered at a numerous and respectable Meeting in the Country** 228  
**Opium administered in very large quantity** 507  
 ——— useful in tetanos 45  
**Optical phenomenon explained** 471  
**Oracles, Grecian, rise and use of the** 260 E, 463 E.  
**ORATION on the Discovery of America** 262  
**Oriental, Tokens of Friendship and Alliance amongst the, G.** 111  
**ORIGINAL Poems** 297  
**Ormond, history of the first duke of** 158  
**OSBORN (Dr. W.) on the Practice of Midwifery** 148  
**Ovary, on diseases of the** 147 E.  
**OXFORD, Vindication of the Dissenters in** 198

## P.

**Pain and pleasure, connexion between** 390  
**PAINE, Citizen, Letter to** 519  
 ——— (T.) Trial of 185  
**Paine (T.) anecdote of** 413  
**PAINE's (T.) Reasons for wishing to preserve the Life of Lewis Capet** 413  
**Paine's (T.) Letter to Mr. King** 336 E.  
**Painting, encaustic, species of, recovered by Mr. Wedgwood** 287 note.  
**PALEY's (W.) Reasons for Contentment** 308  
**PALMER's (S.) Discourses on Truth** 427  
**Palmyra, ruins of, natural productions** 240 G.  
**Papal Territories, Present State of the, G.** 358  
**Paper made from the asclepias syriaca** 237  
**Papists oath of secrecy** 265 E.  
**Paracentesis, observations on** 503  
**Parallel Curves, Essay on, I.** 119  
**Parents, duties of** 88 F.  
**PARIS, Account of the Manner in which the Persons in the Prisons at, were put to Death** 532  
 ——— Proceedings at 101  
 ——— Review of the Proceedings at 126  
**Paris, temperature of the climate of** 117  
**PARKER's (J.) Loyal Address to the People of England** 337  
**PARLIAMENT, Irish, History of the Transactions of the** 153  
 ——— More Reasons for a Reform in 319  
 ——— Necessity of a Reform in 212  
**Parliament, gowns formerly worn in both houses of** 157  
 ——— members of, had stipends 16.  
 ——— necessity of a reform in 212, 322  
 ——— on the language of acts of 185 E.  
 ——— plan for a reform of 212  
 ——— prerogatives of 264 E.  
 ——— remarks on a reform of 444  
**PARLIAMENTARY Reform improper in the present State of the Country** 214  
**Parties, observations on** 80  
**PARTRIDGE's (S.) Charge to the grand Jury** 516  
**Parturition, forceps preferable to the vectis in** 150  
 ——— observations on 149  
**PASQUIN's (A.) Life of the Earl of Barrymore** 532  
**Passions, disinterested, remarks on** 390  
**Pastoral life** 182

PATRIOT

# I N D E X.

- PATRIOT** (The) 453  
**Paul**, on the conversion and character of 192 E.  
*Paulus's* (Prof.) Philosophico-theological Magazine, G. 478  
**PEACE** and Union recommended 321  
**PEARSON's** Political Dictionary 352  
**Pelvis**, scirrhous tumour in the 233 G.  
**Pemphigus**, observations on 506  
**Penis**, singular painful affection of the 42  
**Pentateuch** written by Moses 190  
**People**, causes of the depravity of the 339  
 ——— observations on the 414  
 ——— on the consent of the 336 E.  
 ——— rights of the 239  
**Perception**, remarks on 19, 390  
**PERSECUTION**, Short History of 81  
**Persecution**, remarks on 315 E, 318, 417  
**Persepolis**, ruins of, natural productions 240 G.  
**Persians**, ancient, on the religion of the 260 E.  
**Perpiration**, insensible, an acid passes by 396 E.  
**Petersburg**, population of 356  
**PETION** (Jer.) Works of, F. 85  
**Petion** (J.) account of *ib.*  
**Peyrouse** (Mr. de la) voyage and adventures of 367 E.  
**PEZZI's** Life of Loudon, F. 265  
**Pharisees**, doctrine of the, concerning a future state 478 G.  
**Phenicians**, early state of the 258 E.  
**Phillip** isle, account of 369  
**PHILLIPS** on the Necessity of a Reform in Parliament 212  
**PHILLIPS's** (Cath.) Reasons why the Quakers cannot unite with the Methodists in their Missions to the Negroes 310  
**PHILOSOPHICAL** Transactions for 1792, Part II. 272  
*Philosophical* Reveries, G. 360  
**Philosophical** language, remarks on 140  
*Philosophico-theological* Magazine, G. 478  
**PHILOSOPHY** of the Human Mind 17, 132  
**Philosophy** 459  
**Phlogiston**, on the dispute concerning 477  
**PHTHISIS** pulmonalis, On the Nature and Cure of 140  
**Phthisis** montana, observations on 111  
**PHYSICIAN** of Nature 343  
**Physiognomy**, observations on 267  
*Physiology* of Amphibia, L. 356  
**PICTET** (E. P.) on the present Situation of France 450  
*Picturesque* Tour in Italian Switzerland, G. 119  
**Pigeon**, carrier, described 392  
 APP. VOL. XV.  
**Pike**, an useful weapon 223  
**PINDAR's** (P.) *Loûiad.* Canto IV. 168  
**Pindar**, translations of some of the odes of 260 E.  
**Piony** root an useful medicine 255 G.  
**PITT** (W.) Letter to 444  
**Pitt** (W.) on the conduct of *ib.*  
**PITT's** (W.) Speech on the King's Message 437  
**Placenta** must never be left long in the uterus 149  
**Plague**, hints and queries respecting the 257 E.  
**PLAIN** Address to the common Sense of the People of England 339  
 ——— Truth: or an Account of the Proceedings at Paris 101  
**Planet**, new, memoir on the 109 F.  
**Planets**, historical remarks on the *ib.* F.  
 ——— tables of the motions of the 474 F.  
**Plants**, circulation of fluids in, owing to their irritability 475  
 ——— on the temperature of *ib.*  
 ——— various, observations on 236 G, 237 L.  
**PLAYFAIR** (W.) on the Force and Resources of France 329  
**Pleasure** must follow removal of pain 390  
 ——— sensual, miserable consequences of 424 E.  
**Pliny's** Epistle to Trajan spurious 68  
**PLYMLEY's** (J.) Visitation Sermon 74  
**POEM** on the French King's Death 458  
**POEMS.** By G. Dyer 165  
 ——— revised by W. Cowper 207  
**POETICAL** Epistle to the British Incendiaries 299  
 ——— Essay on the French Revolution 171  
 ——— &c. Address to the Author of the 457  
**Poetical** extracts 5—13, 61, 64, 162—172, 177, 286—91, 294—300, 456—7  
 ——— fancy, observations on 134, 138  
**Poetry**, on translating 1  
 ——— remarks on 61 E, 138, 139, 165  
**Poisoning**, cases of 416 G.  
**Poland**, Plan for a Reform of the Jews in, F. 239  
**Pole**, method of finding the altitude of the, with an instrument badly divided 472 G.  
**POLITICAL** Adventures of Harry Humorous and Timothy True Blue 454  
 ——— Dictionary 352  
 ——— Essays, addressed to Phlo 338  
**Political** writers, advice to 94  
**Politics**, on the use and abuse of general principles in 140 E.  
**Polonius**, on the character of 460  
 R. F. POLWHEEL'S

# I N D E X.

- POLWHELE's (R.)** Discourse preached at Kenton 312  
**POOR** Laws, Decisions on the 410  
 Poor, advantages of religious instruction of the 80  
     — the state of the 309  
     — advice to the 360 G.  
     — character of the 317 E.  
     — necessity of instructing the *ib.* E.  
     — on the state of the, in England 311, 323 E.  
     — practical remarks on the education of the 345  
**Pope**, on the temporal claims of the 49  
     — state of the territories of the 358 E. G.  
**Popery**, beggar's petition against 264 E.  
**Pope's Universal Prayer**, defended 416, 422  
     — strictures on 416  
**Poplar**, the tree of liberty 128  
**Porcelain**, chinese, antiquity of 36  
     — old, how counterfeited *ib.*  
     — topographical relievos in 118  
**PORTER's (T.)** Defence of Unitarianism 303  
*Portraits*, collections of, to be sold 240  
*Portugal*, Traces of the Arabic Language in, P. 480  
     — Works relative to the History of, P. 358  
*Portugal*, restraint of the press in *ib.*  
*Portuguese language*, on the origin of the 480 P.  
**POULTER's (E.)** Sermon on the present Crisis 197  
**POWELL's (J.)** Narcotic; and Private Theatricals 178  
**Power of Grace** illustrated 65  
**POWLETT's (C.)** Visitation Sermon 73  
*Pozzuoli*, Guide to the Antiquities and Curiosities of, I. 118  
 Praise, remarks on 133  
 Preacher, christian, character of the 192 E, 428  
 Precious stones less rare than commonly supposed 117  
**PREDICTIONS** of Christ and the Apostles concerning the End of the World 71  
 Pregnancy, periodically painful tumour during 42  
 Prejudice, observations on 60  
**PRESENT** State of the British Constitution 517  
*Present state of the Papal Territories*, G. 358  
**PRESS**, Resolutions of the Friends to the Liberty of the 451  
 Preis, on the liberty of the 96, 187, 228  
     — restraint of the, in Portugal 358  
**PRIESTLEY's (Dr.)** Letters to the Philosophers of France 305  
**Primogeniture**, defence of the law of 338 E.  
     — on the law of 90, 185  
**PRINCIPLES** and Practice combined 337  
     — of Order and Happiness under the British Constitution 226  
**Principles**, general, on the use and abuse of 140 E.  
**PRISONER**: a musical Romance 178  
**PRISONS** and Hospitals, Appendix to Howard on 252  
**PRIVATE** Theatricals 178  
**Prizes** adjudged 108, 465  
     — subjects announced for 105—8, 353—4  
**Projectors** do good mediately if not immediately 328  
*Propertius*, Critical Epistle on, L. 358  
**Property**, on the distribution of 90  
     — transferring of 185 E.  
     — origin of the idea of *ib.* E.  
     — right of, what 311  
**Prophecy** of the 6th century respecting France 493  
     — use of 301 E.  
**Protestants** ought not to prescribe articles of faith 111  
**PROVERBS** of our Ancestors 536  
**Pruritus** in vagina, remarks on 500  
**Punishments**, observations on 86, 97, 262, 371  
*Purpura apyreta* 401  
**Pyramids** of Egypt natural productions 240 G.  
**Pyrophorus**, new species of 235  

## Q.

**Quadrupeds**, new species of 475  
**QUAKERS** cannot unite with the Methodists in their Missions to the Negroes 310  
**Quickfands** on the coast of Barbary, observations on the 109 F.  
**Quicksilver** completely calcined does not yield dephlogisticated air 467  
     — muriated, gutta serena cured by 48  
     — obstinate pains in the eye removed by 233 G.  
     — of little efficacy in tetanus 45  
     — utility of, in certain cases of epilepsy 233  

## R.

**Ragusa**, account of 376 E.  
**Rain**, on the formation of 353  
     — wind, observations on the 463 G.  
**Raleigh (Sir W.)** fragments relative to 264 E.  
**RANDALL's (E.)** Juridical Essays 183  
     Rank,



# I N D E X.

- Rank, difference of, necessary 424  
 Raphael's School of Athens, remarks on 480  
 Rasp-house at Amsterdam, account of the 252  
 RAWDON'S (Lord) Bill for the Relief of insolvent Debtors 454  
 REASON of Man 228  
 REASONS for Contentment 308  
 ——— preventing the French from trampling upon Europe 229  
 ——— why the Quakers cannot unite with the Methodists in Missions to the Negroes 310  
 Redemption, observations on 424 E.  
 REFLECTIONS on the Murder of Louis XVI. 434  
 ——— upon the Commencement of a new Year 307  
 ——— Education of Children in Charity Schools 344  
 REFORM of the Representation of Scotland considered 216  
 Reform, arts of the enemies of 226, 311  
 ——— of parliament, necessity of 212, 214  
 ——— remarks on 75, 76, 212, 217, 315, 316, 357, 516  
 Reformation, history of the, in Sweden 234 Sw.  
 Refraction different in different latitudes 472  
 REIDE (T. D.) on the Diseases of the Army 143  
 Religion, defence of 305  
 ——— new, in Arabia 31  
 ——— observations on 360 G, 464 E.  
 ——— of ancient Egypt 258  
 ——— the ancient Hungarians 479  
 ——— on private judgment in matters of 198, 199  
 ——— state of, amongst the ancients 258 E.  
 Religions, on founders of 478 G.  
 Religious controversy, remarks on 76, *ib.*  
 ——— establishments, defence of 75, 196 E, 428  
 ——— observations on 81, 83, 336 E.  
 ——— unnecessary 83, 262  
 ——— instruction, remarks on 79, 80 E, 80  
 ——— liberty, remarks on 75, 76, 79, 80, 81, 84 E, 85 E, 238 L, 262  
 ——— societies, observation on 78  
 ——— subscription, remarks on 84 E.  
 ——— truth, on investigating 427  
 Reminders, contingent, observations on 185 E.  
 REMARKS on Dr. Gregory's Introduction to his Essays 129  
 ——— the new Sugar Bill 521  
 RENSRAW'S (S.) Sermon before the Mayor and Corporation of Liverpool 431  
 Repentance, observations on 424 E.  
 REPORT of the Committee of general Defence on the Disposition of Britain towards France 440  
 REPORTS of Cases in the King's Bench, &c. 409  
 Reproof, observations on 193  
 Republic, observations on a 231 E, 333  
 Republican government applicable to a large state 262  
 RESOLUTIONS of the Friends to the Liberty of the Press 451  
 Respiration, remarks on 46  
 RESTORER of Health 343  
 Retirement not calculated to form habits of virtue 139  
 Revelation, necessity of 74  
 ——— on the proofs of 301, 306  
*Reveries*, Philosophical, G. 360  
 REVIEW of the Proceedings at Paris last Summer 126  
 REVOLUTION, Expediency of a, considered 227  
 Revolution, remarks on the 323  
 Revolutions, remarks on 312  
 Rhyme, observations on 134, *ib.* 391  
 Rich, state of the, compared with that of the poor 309  
 RICHARDS'S (G.) Songs of British Bards 162  
 Richter (J. B.) on modern Subjects of Chemistry, G. 234  
 Richter's (C. G.) Collections of portraits to be sold 240  
 Riga, account of the prison and house of correction at 254  
 RIGHT in the West-India Merchants to a double Monopoly of the Sugar Market 522  
 RIGHTS of Britons, Three Dialogues on the 226  
 ——— God 434  
 ——— Man, Strictures on 228  
 Rights, people should be jealous of their 238  
 Rivers, on the property of 439  
 ROBINSON'S (A.) History of the Persecution of Christians 81  
 ROCHEFOUCAULD Liancourt's (de la) Letter to Mr. de Maleherbes, F. 412  
 ROCHON'S (Ab.) Voyage to Madagascar 35  
 Roemer (Dr. C. H. von) on the Decline of Towns, G. 357  
 ROMANS, Military, political, and social Life of the 381  
 ROME, Political, religious, and moral Description of, F. 48  
 Rome, account of *ib.*  
 ——— administration of justice at 53  
 R 1 2 Rome,

# I N D E X.

- Rome, climate of 53  
 ——— courts of 52, 53  
 ——— early history of 260 E.  
 ——— inquisition of 52, 54  
 ——— present state of 258 G.  
 ——— state of, after the accession of  
   Tiberius 383  
 ROSE'S (S.) Edition of Comyns's Reports 409  
 Rousseau, remarks on 378  
 ROWLEY (Dr. W.) on the Gout 340  
 Rozier's Journal, extracts from  
   112—17, 235, 237, 466, 467,  
   470, 473, 474, 479  
 Rubies found in granites 117  
 RUSSELL'S (Dr. W.) History of ancient  
   Europe 257  
 Russia, Statistical Account of, G. 356  
 Russia, on the prisons and hospitals of  
   254  
 ——— state of the soldiery in 256  
 ——— population of 356  
 ——— war of, with the Turks 359 G.  
 RYE'S Excursion to the Peak of Tene-  
   riff 249  
 S.  
 Saffron, virtues of 355  
 Sage Village Curate, G. 360  
 ST. MEARD'S (J.) Agony of thirty-  
   eight Hours, F. 527  
 ST. VALLERY, Castle of 183  
 Saint-Flour and Justina, F. 120  
 St. Vitus's dance, observations on 507  
 Salivation, efficacy of, in certain cases of  
   epilepsy 233 G.  
 ——— pain of the eye  
   *ib.* G.  
 Salutation, eastern mode of 241  
 SATAN, Forty Stripes save none for 306  
 Saturn, observations of 465 G.  
 Savages civilized 244  
 Saxony, On the Decline of Towns in, G.  
   357  
 SAYERS'S (Dr. F.) Disquisitions Meta-  
   physical and Literary 387  
 Scheldt, opening the, would be beneficial  
   to Britain 223 E, 225 E.  
 ——— remarks on opening the 436,  
   438, 439  
 Schemnitz, medical topography of  
   111 G.  
 Schmidt has made paper from the ascle-  
   pias syriaca 237  
 Schneider's (J. G.) Physiology of Am-  
   phibia, L. 356  
 Schoen's (G. L.) Innovation: a Poem  
   209  
 Schaepp's (J. D.) History of Tortoises,  
   G. L. 356  
 Schools, charity, advantages of 317 E.  
 ——— of industry 345  
 Schreder's Ecclesiastical History, Vol.  
   XVI, G. 234  
 Science, progress lately made in  
   109 F, 474  
 ——— requisites to the perfection of  
   109 F  
 ——— state of, amongst the ancients  
   258 E.  
 Scirrhus tumour in the pelvis 233 G.  
 SCOTLAND, Reform of the Representa-  
   tion of, considered 216  
 Scotland, on the disturbances in 202 E.  
 ——— representation of  
   213, 217, 219  
 ——— settlement of the crown  
   of 60, 61 E.  
 ——— plan for a reform of the re-  
   presentation of 217  
 ——— present state of 219  
 SCOTT'S (T.) Rights of God 434  
 ——— Scripture Doctrine of Go-  
   vernment 202  
 SCRIPTURE History, Abridgment of 347  
 SCRIPTURES, Treatise upon the Au-  
   thenticity of the 415  
 Scriptures, necessity of a new translation  
   of the 84 E.  
 ——— on the obscurity of the 71  
 ——— see Testament.  
 Scrofula, observations on 355  
 Scrotum, cancerous, case of 146 E.  
 ——— sphacelated, case of 506 E.  
 ——— uncommon enlargement of the  
   508 E.  
 SEASONABLE Publication 515  
 SECRET History of the Court and Reign  
   of Charles II. 494  
 Sect, new, amongst the Jews 239  
 Sectarists, observations on 359  
 Sedition, remarks on 223  
 Seditious, who 98  
 SELECTION from the Harleian Miscel-  
   lany 264  
 Self, on the knowledge of 192, 424 E.  
 SEMPILL'S (Lord) Address to the Pub-  
   lic 218  
 Sensibility and imagination, connexion  
   between 139  
 SENTIMENTS on a War with France  
   327  
 SERIOUS Address to the freeborn Sons  
   of Britain 227  
 SERMON preached at a Country Church  
   317  
 SERMONS 73—80, 191—201,  
   310—17, 422—34  
 Serosity produced by blisters, analysis of  
   the 113  
 Serpentine mountain, remarks on the  
   465 G.  
 Serra's (J. C. da) inedited Works rela-  
   tive to the History of Portugal, P. 358  
 Serum, analysis of 113  
 Servants, instructions to 480 G.  
 Servin, character of 463 E.  
 Seton

# I N D E X.

- Seton singularly beneficial in a pulmonic disorder 147 E.
- Seigné (Mad. de) character of 464 E.
- SEYMOUR's Translation of Campe's Dialogues for Youth 461
- Shaftsbury, account of the earl of 265 E.
- SHERIDAN (C. F.) on the true Principles of civil Liberty 330
- Shipwreck, effects of, on the mariners 272
- SHORT Appeal to the Common Sense of Mankind 227
- Sicily, account of 376 E.
- Sight, remarkable instance of recovery of 40
- Silver, analysis of red ores of 237
- Sirmond's account of the Gauls written about the end of the 4th century 109
- Sitting, on different modes of 34
- Six Essays on natural Rights, &c. 336
- SKETCH of the Revenue and Finances of Ireland 510
- SKETCHES, Descriptive 294
- of Facts and Opinions respecting the Venereal Disease 400
- Skin, particoloured, instance of, in a girl 505
- Skubr's (C.) Botanic Manual, G. 236
- Slavery, observations on 336 E.
- Slave trade, on the abolition of the 521
- remarks on the 313
- SMALL-POX, Remarks on, G. 355
- Small-pox, observations on 355 G, 506
- Societies, debating, remarks on 229 E.
- SOCIETY, Medical, of London, Memoirs of, Vol. III, 39, 500
- Royal, Transactions of the, for 1792, Part II. 272
- Society, Helvetic, of corresponding Physicians and Surgeons, Memoirs of the, G. 233
- of Natural History, at Paris 108
- Physical, of Berlin, Observations &c. by the, Vol. IV. P. III. IV. G. 465
- Teyler's Theological, at Haarlem 354
- Society, on the progress of 258
- remarks on 424, 432
- Soldiery, on the state of the, in Russia 256
- Solomon's Song compared with the idyls of Theocritus 478 G.
- SONGS of the aboriginal Bards of Britain 162
- Soul, immortality of the 424 E.
- SOUTH-SEA, Voyage to the 121
- South-Sea, History of the, F. 473
- South-Sea, discoveries in the 361, 473 F.
- discovery of the 473
- opening into the, from the Atlantic, proposed 16.
- SOUZA's (J. de) Traces of the Arabic Language in Portugal, P. 480
- Spain, history of the Moors in 179 E. F.
- Spars, lead, of Siberia, observations on some 465 G.
- Sparta, backwardness of refinement at 261
- Speculation, remarks on 73
- SPEECH at the Whig Club 172
- of Mr. Pitt on the King's Message 437
- on a War with France 325
- SPELLING BOOK, Charity School 346
- Spermaceti, dead bird converted into a substance resembling 272
- Spermatic vein, diseased, description of a 507 E.
- Sphacelus of a singular kind, case of 146 E.
- the scrotum, case of 506 E.
- on the region of the os sacrum 507
- Spices flourish in the French islands 478
- Spina bifida, case of 146 E.
- Spirit, pure, specific gravity of 279
- Spirits, on ascertaining the strength of 280
- STANHOPE (Lord) Letter to 57
- Starchamber, passages and speeches in the 264 E.
- Stars, movements of some 472
- observations on the 471, 475
- STATE Papers between M. Chauvelin and Lord Grenville 435
- State, future, evidence of a 305
- observations on a 478 G.
- STATEMENT of the Scripture Doctrine respecting Government 202
- Statistical Account of Russia, G. 356
- Steam, observations on 279
- Steatoma, singular cases of 146 E, 233 G.
- STEDMAN's (T.) Sermon on the 30th of January 316
- STEWART's (D.) Philosophy of the human Mind 17, 132
- STOCKDALE (P.) Letters between Bnh. Barrington and 351
- STOCKDALE's (P.) Letter to Mr. Bryant 422
- Stomach, case of ulcer in the 233 G.
- Stone, heavy of Pengilly, account of the 465 G.
- Stones, Mountain, New Cabinet of, G. 237
- Stones, precious, less rare than commonly supposed 117
- STURGES's (Dr. J.) Sermon at the Consecration of the Bishop of Exeter 196, 428
- Subjects, duties of 200, 201, 202
- Subordination, benefits of 106
- Subscription, religious, remarks on 84 E.
- Succession,



# I N D E X.

Succession, on the laws of	90	Temperature, mean, of a day, on ascer-	
SUGAR Bill, Remarks on the	521	taining the	470
Colonies, Case of the	520	TENERIFFE, Excursion to the Peak of	
SUGAR Market, Right in the West India			249
Merchants to a double Monopoly of		Teneriffe, description of	122
the	522	directions for sailing into the	
Sugar, history of the culture of, in the		road of Santa Cruz at	121
West Indies	520	journey to the summit of the	
SUGARS, Bengal, on the Importation of		peak of	249
	523	Test act, remarks on the	79, 85 E.
Suicide, observations on	58 E.	vindication of the	75
SUMMARY Hintson the Laws of Debt	57	TESTAMENT, New, Abridgment of the	
Sun, on the light of the	472		347
Sunday School, Discourse on opening a,		Old, Lessons selected from	
G.	480	the	ib.
Sunday Schools, advantages of	80 E.	Testament, New, on the authenticity of	
introduced into Ger-		the books of the	68, 74, 301, 306
many	480	language of the	
observations on	345		71
Superstition, instance of	50	remarks on passages	
observations on	135	in the	71, 111 G, 233 Gr. L,
sources of	ib.		302, 478 G.
Supplies formerly not voted till grievances		Old, on the authenticity of	
were redressed	94	the	73, 74, 306, 416
Surgeons, necessity of study to	148	remarks on passages in	
Sweden, History of the Church of, Sw.		the	111 G, 478 G.
	234	Testaments, remarks on	90
Tracts on the History of the		Tetanos, observations on	45
Church and Reformation in, Sw.	234	Theatrical life, observations on a	459
writings by the late king of	120	performance, remarks on	461
Swinish multitude an appropriate epithet,		Theocritus, icyls of, compared with So-	
and why	220	lomon's Song	478 G.
Swiss, remarks on the	60	Theological terms, explanation of	67 E.
Switzerland, Picturesque Tour in, G.	119	Thigh, on amputating the	146
Relievs of different Parts		aneurisms in the	146 E.
of	118	THIRTY nine Articles, Inquiry into the	
Switzerland, travels through	376 E.	Nature of Subscription to the	83
Symphysis pubis, on the division of the		THOMAS'S (G. A.) Strictures on Ed-	
	153	wards's Sermon	71
Synovia, analysis and description of the		Thomson, account of	61
	113	elegy written by	ib.
Syrtes on the coast of Barbary, observa-		letter from, to his sister	62
tions on the	109 F.	Thorax, abscess in the, successfully treated	
T.			44
Talents do not render study superfluous		on wounds of the	502
	148, 266	Thought, particular, cannot be called up	
TAPPRELL'S (R.) Seasonable Publica-		by any effort of the mind	133
tion	515	THOUGHTS upon our present Situation	
Tartar, cream of, ascites cured by	508		126
Taste, observations on	135	THREE Dialogues on the Rights of Bri-	
TATHAM'S (Dr. E.) Sermon suitable to		tons	226
the Times	198	Letters on the Importation of	
Taxes, observations on	325	Bengal Sugars	523
TAYLOR'S (Mrs.) Easy Introduction to		Tbunberg's (Dr. C. P.) Travels, Vol. III,	
general Knowledge	347	Sw.	359
Tea, how cured	36	Tiberius, character of	383
TEACHER'S Assistant	346	Tibullius, remarks on	358 L.
Teething, remarks on	355	Timber, plan for supplying the navy of	
TELEMACHUS, Adventures of, in blank		Britain with	101
Verse	169	Time, importance of improving	307 E.
Telescope, best inclination for the mir-		Timor, account of the island of	124
ror of a	472	Tin, natural history of	465 G.
instrument for measuring the		Tithes ought to be abolished	90 F.
power of a	ib.		8
		Titles,	

# I N D E X.

Titles, on the venality of	89	Tympany produced by a scirrhoty of the colon	233 G.
<i>Tokens of Friendship and Alliance amongst the Orientals, G.</i>	111	U.	
TOLERATION, complete, Right of Dissenters to	85	UNITARIANISM, Defence of	301
Toleration, complete, advantages of	262	Unitarianism defended	193, 304
——— religious, remarks on	75,	Uranite, observations on	234 G.
76, 79, 80, 84 E, 85 E,		Urethra, ruptured	504
238 L, 315 E, 318		Urine, observations on the	396
Tomb ancient Grecian	240	——— obstruction of, fatal cases of	506, 507
Topaz, Siberian, observations on the	465 G.	V.	
Tortoise, new species of, described	465 G.	Vagina, pruritus in, remarks on	500
<i>Tortoisés, History of, G, L.</i>	356	<i>Vahl's (M.) Botanic Characters, L.</i>	237
Torture, observations on	253	Valleys, how formed	115
Tour, Picturesque, in Italian Switzerland, G.	119	Vectis not of equal utility with the forceps	150
Towns, On the Decline of, G.	357	Vegetables, green colour of, ascribed to the solar light by the ancients	116
Trajan, guilty of injustice	419	——— on the economy of	105
TRANSACTIONS of the Royal Society for 1792, Part II.	272	——— preservation of	109 F.
Translation, remarks on	1	Vegetation, remarks on	476
TRAVELS in India	241	VENEREAL Disease, Sketches of Facts and Opinions respecting the	400
——— through Arabia and the East	26	Venice, account of	381 E.
——— Switzerland, &c.	376	Venus has an atmosphere	276
<i>Travels in Europe, Africa, and Asia, Sw.</i>	359	——— on the rotation of	465 G.
Travel-writing, remarks on	376	VERSES on the beneficial Effects of Inoculation	297
TREATISE upon the Authenticity of the Scriptures	415	Vice, not to be too freely disclosed	67
TRIAL at large of Lewis XVI.	409	——— punishments of	424 E.
——— of Lewis XVI, F.	400	<i>Vieth's (G. U. A.) Mathematical Essays, G.</i>	471
TRIMMER's (Mrs.) Abridgment of Scripture History	347	VILLAGE Politics	519
——— the	ib.	Villiers (Barbara) account of	495
——— New Testament	ib.	——— duke of Buckingham, life of	264 E.
——— Charity School Spelling Book	346	VINDICATION of the Catholics of Ireland	317
——— Reflections on the Education of Children in Charity Schools	344	——— of the Dissenters in Oxford	198
——— Teacher's Assistant	346	Virtue, habits of, not to be formed in retirement	139
Trinity, on the third person in the	193, 478 G.	——— in what sense utility the criterion of	314
——— strictures on the doctrine of the	304	——— observations on	360 G.
TRIUMPH of Freedom anticipated	299	VISION from the Lord God Almighty	352
<i>Troil's (Archb. U. von) Tracts on the History of the Church and Reformation in Sweden, Sw.</i>	234	Voice, on the formation of the	502
TRUTH and Reason against Place and Pension	514	<i>Voigt's (J. C. W.) New Cabinet of Mountain Stones, G.</i>	237
Truth, religious, on investigating	427	Volcanoes, observations on	109 F, 114
Tumour, encysted, removed by electricity	507 E.	Voltaire, eulogy on	171
——— extraordinary	506	Vow, ancient mode of making a	110
——— irritable sympathetic, periodicaly painful	42	VOYAGE to Madagascar and the East-Indies	35
——— removed by concussion	508	——— the South Sea	121
Turkish fanaticism	381	W.	
Turks, account of the war between Austria, Russia, and the	359 G.	WALK, Evening	296
		WAR with France! or who pays the Reckoning?	326
		War between Austria, Russia, and Turkey, G.	359
		War,	

# I N D E X.

- War, disadvantages of, to a commercial people 325  
 — observations on 208, 209, 222, 324, 325  
 Warbeck (Perkin) life of 264 E.  
 Wargrave theatricals, history of 332 E.  
 Warkotich (bar. von) account of the conspiracy of 360 G.  
 Warm springs, cause of 292  
 Washington, description and plan of the new city of 262 E.  
 Water, effects of long immersion in, on the human body 272  
 — on the composition of 477  
 — crystallization of 109 F.  
 — evaporation of 279, 353  
 Waters, mineral, observations on some 501  
 — thermal, cause of the heat of 292  
 WATKINS's (T.) Travels through Switzerland, &c. 376  
 WATSON's (Bish.) Sermon before the Stewards of the Westminster Dispensary 310  
 Watton (bish.) character of 311  
 Wedgwood (Mr) species of encaustic painting recovered by 287 note.  
 Weights, tables of 109 F.  
 WEST-INDIA Merchants, Right in the, to a double Monopoly of the Sugar Market 522  
 West Indies, observations on the colonies in the 520—3  
 WESTMINSTER Elector's Letter to Mr. Fox 320  
 — Letter to the Electors of 206  
 Whale-fishery on the coast of New South Wales 374 E.  
 WHIG Club, Speech at the 172  
 — Party, Inquiry into the Difference among the 320  
 Whig and tory, on the titles of 337  
 WHITE (Dr. W) on Phthisis pulmonalis 140  
 Will, power of the, over cogitation 133  
 William the conqueror, life of 264 E.  
 — III, life of 265 E.  
 Will's (G. A.) Bibliotheca Norica, L. 360  
 Wills, *see* Testaments  
 WILSON (Dr. A. P.) on the remote Cause of Gravel 395  
 WINCHESTER (E.) on the Discovery of America 262  
 Wind, rain, observations on the 465 E.  
 Winds, theory of the 293 E.  
 Wine in large quantities recommended in tetanos 45  
 — Teneriffe, sold for Madeira 123  
 Wit, observations on 134  
 Witchcraft, supposed c se of 466 G.  
 Witches, law against, still on the statute book of Ireland 161  
 Witches, on the existence of 58 E.  
 Witte's (S. S.) Deience of his Essay on the Origin of the Pyramids, G. 240  
 Wives should have no portions 91  
 Wolf's (P. P.) History of the Jesuits, G. 354  
 Wolfey (Card.) life of 264 E.  
 Woman, duties of 120 F.  
 — observations on 525  
 — on the moral character of 120 F.  
 Women, learned, observations on 464 E.  
 — on the education of *ib.* E.  
 Words (J. G.) on Tokens of Friendship amongst the Orientals, G. 111  
 WORD of Advice to European Powers 339  
 WORDSWORTH's (W.) Descriptive Sketches 294  
 — Evening Walk 296  
 WORKS of Jer. Petion, F. 85  
 Works of J. Ewald, Dan. 119  
 Worms, observations on 355, 507, 508  
 Worship, advantages of liturgies in 78  
 — consequences of 192 E.  
 — public, observations on 84 E, 192 E.  
 — recommended 424 E.  
 Wounds, observations on 145, 508  
 — of the thorax 502  
 Writers on coins, weights, and measures, remarks on 109 F.  
 WRONGS of Man 337  
 Wytttenbach's Explanation of the View of St. Gotthard, F. 118  
 WYVILL (C.) Letter to 318  
 WYVILL's (C.) Letter to Mr. Pitt 444  
 Y.  
 YEAR, new, Reflections upon the Commencement of a 307  
 Year of the Hindoos, account of the 278 E.  
 YOUNG Ladies, Letters and Conversations between 463  
 — Lady, Mental Improvement for a 464  
 — Persons, Dramatic Dialogues for 348  
 — (Sir W.) on the British Constitution 333  
 YOUNG's (A.) Example of France a Warning to Britain 447  
 YOUTH, Elementary Dialogues for 461  
 Z.  
 Zeolite not a volcanic product 476  
 Ziegenus (E.) on the four Gospels, Gr. L. 233  
 Zinc, flowers of, recommended in St. Vitus's dance 507  
 — vitriolated, virtues of 355, 501, 508  
 Zirnitz, account of the lake of 464 E.  
 Zoology, history of, for 1792 475

ERRATA.



## E R R A T A.

Page 3, line 7, from bot. *dele* he.

42, l. 16, f. b. *dele* violent.

45, l. 3, f. b. *for* pinion *read* opinion.

75, l. 13, *for* succellion *read* succession.

140, l. 2, *for* ipfi *read* ipse.

162, l. 18, *for* bard is *read* bards are.

185, l. 15, f. b. *after* Law *put* a comma.

191, l. 14, *for* Egyptain *read* Egyptian.

236, l. 19, *dele* be.

240, l. 26, *for* Urpsprung *read* Ursprung.

257, l. 6, *for* wrests *read* werfts.

269, l. 21, *for* fiöldzeug *read* feldzeug.

270, l. 15, *for* capture *read* captures.

277, l. 3, *for* position *read* portion.

328, l. 14, *for* Freuch *read* French.

367, l. 10, f. b. *for* reeds *read* seeds.

Page 376, l. 24, *for* at *read* of.

381, l. 5, f. b. *dele* the semicolon *after* 762.

386, l. 13, *after* Catiline *put* a comma *instead* of the full stop.

395, l. 9, *for* etymology *read* entomology.

409, l. 12, *for* thatrthis *read* that this.

412, l. 18, *for* XIV. *read* XVI.

416, l. 2, *for* s *read* is.

440, l. 20, f. b. *for* Committees *read* Committee.

458, l. 9, *for* Lews *read* Lewis.

512, *between* lines 12 and 13 f. b. *add* additional duties 282,843 4  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

In Vol. XIV.

455, l. 23, *for* Key *read* Hey.



*Authentic Copy of a Petition, praying for a Reform in Parliament, presented to the House of Commons by Charles Grey, Esq. on Monday, 6th May 1793; and signed only by the Members of the Society of The Friends of the People, associated for the Purpose of obtaining a Parliamentary Reform.*

To the Honourable the Commons of Great Britain in Parliament assembled.

*The humble Petition, &c. sheweth,*

**T**HAT by the form and spirit of the British Constitution, the King is vested with the sole Executive Power.

That the House of Lords consists of Lords Spiritual and Temporal, deriving their titles and consequence either from the Crown, or from Hereditary Privileges.

That these two powers, if they acted without controul, would form either a despotic Monarchy, or a dangerous Oligarchy.

That the wisdom of our ancestors hath contrived, that these authorities may be rendered not only harmless, but beneficial, and be exercised for the security and happiness of the People.

That this security and happiness are to be looked for in the introduction of a Third Estate, distinct from, and a check upon the other two branches of the Legislature; created by, representing, and responsible to the People themselves.

That so much depending upon the preservation of this Third Estate, in such its constitutional purity and strength, your Petitioners are reasonably jealous of whatever may appear to vitiate the one, or to impair the other.

That at the present day the House of Commons does not fully and fairly represent the People of England, which, consistently with what your Petitioners conceive to be the principles of the Constitution, they consider as a grievance, and therefore, with all becoming respect, lay their complaints before your Honourable House.

That though the terms in which your Petitioners state their grievance may be looked upon as strong, yet your Honourable House is entreated to believe that no expression is made use of for the purpose of offence.

Your Petitioners in affirming that your Honourable House is not an adequate Representation of the People of England, do but state a fact, which, if the word "Representation" be accepted in its fair and obvious sense, they are ready to prove, and which they think detrimental to their interests, and contrary to the spirit of the Constitution.

How far this inadequate Representation is prejudicial to their interests, your Petitioners apprehend they may be allowed to decide for themselves; but how far it is contrary to the spirit of the Constitution, they refer to the consideration of your Honourable House.

If your Honourable House shall be pleased to determine that the People of England ought not to be fully represented, your Petitioners pray that such your determination may be made known, to the end that the People may be apprized



apprized of their real situation ; but if your Honourable House shall conceive that the People are already fully represented, then your Petitioners beg leave to call your attention to the following facts :

Your Petitioners complain, that the number of Representatives assigned to the different Counties is grossly disproportioned to their comparative Extent, Population, and Trade.

Your Petitioners complain, that the Elective Franchise is so partially and unequally distributed, and is in so many instances committed to bodies of men of such very limited numbers, that the majority of your Honourable House is elected by less than fifteen thousand Electors, which, even if the male adults in the kingdom be estimated at so low a number as three millions, is not more than the two hundredth part of the people to be represented.

Your Petitioners complain, that the right of voting is regulated by no uniform or rational principle.

Your Petitioners complain, that the exercise of the Elective Franchise is only renewed once in Seven Years.

Your Petitioners thus distinctly state the subject matter of their complaints, that your Honourable House may be convinced that they are acting from no spirit of general discontent, and that you may with the more ease be enabled to enquire into the facts, and to apply the remedy.

For the evidence in support of the FIRST COMPLAINT, your Petitioners refer to the Return Book of your Honourable House.— Is it fitting, that Rutland and Yorkshire should bear an equal rank in the scale of County Representation ; or can it be right, that Cornwall alone should, by its extravagant proportion of Borough Members, outnumber not only the Representatives of Yorkshire and Rutland together, but of Middlesex added to them ? Or, if a distinction be taken between the landed and the trading interests, must it not appear monstrous that Cornwall and Wiltshire should send more Borough Members to Parliament, than Yorkshire, Lancashire, Warwickshire, Middlesex, Worcestershire, and Somersetshire united ? and that the total Representation of all Scotland should but exceed by one Member, the number returned for a single County in England ?

The SECOND COMPLAINT of your Petitioners, is founded on the unequal proportions in which the Elective Franchise is distributed, and in support of it,

They affirm, that seventy of your Honourable Members are returned by thirty-five places, where the right of voting is vested in Burgage and other Tenures of a similar description, and in which it would be to trifle with the patience of your Honourable House, to mention any number of voters whatever, the elections at the places alluded to being notoriously a mere matter of form. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They affirm, that in addition to the seventy Honourable Members so chosen, ninety more of your Honourable Members are elected by forty-six places, in none of which the number of voters exceeds fifty. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They affirm, that in addition to the hundred and sixty so elected, thirty-seven more of your Honourable Members are elected by nineteen places, in none of which the number of voters exceeds one hundred. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They affirm, that in addition to the hundred and ninety-seven Honourable Members so chosen, fifty-two more are returned to serve in Parliament, by twenty-six places, in none of which the number of Voters exceeds two hundred. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They

They affirm, that in addition to the two hundred and forty-nine so elected, twenty more are returned to serve in Parliament for counties in Scotland, by less than one hundred Electors each, and ten for counties in Scotland by less than two hundred and fifty each. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove, even admitting the validity of fictitious votes.

They affirm, that in addition to the two hundred and seventy-nine so elected, thirteen districts of Burghs in Scotland, not containing one hundred voters each, and two districts of Burghs, not containing one hundred and twenty-five each, return fifteen more Honourable Members. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

And in this manner, according to the present state of the Representation, two hundred and ninety-four of your Honourable Members are chosen, and, being a majority of the entire House of Commons, are enabled to decide all questions in the name of the whole people of England and Scotland.

The THIRD COMPLAINT of your Petitioners is founded on the present complicated rights of voting. From the caprice with which they have been varied, and the obscurity in which they have become involved by time and contradictory decisions, they are become a source of infinite confusion, litigation, and expence.

Your Petitioners need not tender any evidence of the inconveniences which arise from this defect in the Representation, because the proof is to be found in your Journals, and the Minutes of the different Committees who have been appointed under the 10th and 11th of the King. Your Honourable House is but too well acquainted with the tedious, intricate, and expensive scenes of litigation which have been brought before you, in attempting to settle the legal import of those numerous distinctions which perplex and confound the present rights of voting. How many months of your valuable time have been wasted in listening to the wrangling of Lawyers upon the various species of Burgagehold, Leasehold, and Freehold! How many Committees have been occupied in investigating the nature of Scot and Lot, Potwallers, Commonalty, Populacy, resiant Inhabitants, and Inhabitants at large! What labour and research have been employed in endeavouring to ascertain the legal claims of Borough-men, Aldermen, Port-men, Select-men, Burgeffes, and Council-men! And what confusion has arisen from the complicated operation of clashing Charters, from freemen resident and non-resident, and from the different modes of obtaining the freedom of Corporations by birth, by servitude, by marriage, by redemption, by election, and by purchase! On all these points it is however needless for your Petitioners to enlarge, when your Honourable House recollects the following facts; namely, that since the twenty-second of December 1790, no less than twenty-one committees have been employed in deciding upon litigated rights of voting. Of these, eight were occupied with the disputes of three Boroughs, and there are Petitions from four places yet remaining before your Honourable House, waiting for a final decision to inform the Electors what their rights really are.

But the complaint of your Petitioners on the subject of the want of an uniform, and equitable principle in regulating the right of voting, extends as well to the arbitrary manner in which some are excluded, as to the intricate qualifications by which others are admitted to the exercise of that privilege.

Religious Opinions create an incapacity to vote. All Papists are excluded generally, and, by the operation of the Test Laws, Protestant Dissenters are deprived of a voice in the election of Representatives in about thirty Boroughs, where the right of voting is confined to Corporate Officers alone; a deprivation the more unjustifiable, because, though considered as unworthy to vote, they



they are deemed capable of being elected, and may be the Representatives of the very places for which they are disqualified from being the Electors.

A man possessed of one thousand pounds per annum, or any other sum, arising from copyhold, leasehold for ninety-nine years, trade, property in the Public Funds, or even freehold in the city of London, and many other cities and towns having peculiar jurisdictions, is not thereby intitled to vote. Here again a strange distinction is taken between electing and representing, as a copyhold is a sufficient qualification to sit in your Honourable House.

A man paying taxes to any amount, how great soever, for his domestic establishment, does not thereby obtain a right to vote, unless his residence be in some borough where that right is vested in the inhabitants. This exception operates in sixty places, of which twenty-eight do not contain three hundred voters each, and the number of householders in England and Wales (exclusive of Scotland), who pay all taxes, is 714,911, and of householders who pay all Taxes, but the House and Window Taxes, is 284,459, as appears by a return made to your Honourable House in 1785; so that, even supposing the sixty places above mentioned to contain, one with another, one thousand voters in each, there will remain 939,370 householders who have no voice in the Representation, unless they have obtained it by accident or by purchase. Neither their contributions to the public burdens, their peaceable demeanor as good subjects, nor their general respectability and merits as useful citizens, afford them, as the law now stands, the smallest pretensions to participate in the choice of those, who, under the name of their Representatives, may dispose of their fortunes and liberties.

In Scotland, the grievance arising from the nature of the rights of voting, has a different and still more intolerable operation. In that great and populous division of the kingdom, not only the great mass of the householders, but of the landholders also are excluded from all participation in the choice of Representatives. By the remains of the feudal system in the counties, the vote is severed from the land, and attached to what is called the superiority. In other words it is taken from the substance, and transferred to the shadow, because, though each of these superiorities must, with very few exceptions, arise from lands of the present annual value of four hundred pounds sterling, yet it is not necessary that the lands should do more than give a name to the superiority, the possessor of which may retain the right of voting notwithstanding he be divested of the property. And on the other hand, great landholders have the means afforded them by the same system, of adding to their influence, without expence to themselves, by communicating to their confidential friends the privilege of electing Members to serve in Parliament. The process by which this operation is performed is simple. He who wishes to encrease the number of his dependent votes, surrenders his charter to the Crown, and, parcelling out his estate into as many lots of four hundred pounds per annum, as may be convenient, conveys them to such as he can confide in. To these, new charters are, upon application, granted by the Crown, so as to erect each of them into a superiority, which privilege once obtained, the land itself is reconveyed to the original grantor; and thus the Representatives of the landed interest in Scotland may be chosen by those who have no real or beneficial interest in the land.

Such is the situation in which the Counties of Scotland are placed. With respect to the Burghs, every thing that bears even the semblance of popular choice, has long been done away. The election of Members to serve in Parliament is vested in the Magistrates and Town Councils, who, having by various innovations, constituted themselves into self-elected bodies, instead of

Officers



Officers freely chosen by the inhabitants at large, have deprived the People of all participation in that privilege, the free exercise of which affords the only security they can possess for the protection of their liberties and property.

The FOURTH and LAST COMPLAINT of your Petitioners is the length of the duration of Parliaments. Your Honourable House knows, that by the ancient laws and statutes of this kingdom frequent Parliaments ought to be held; and that the sixth of William and Mary, c. 2. (since repealed) speaking while the spirit of the Revolution was yet warm, declared, that "frequent and new Parliaments tend very much to the happy union and good agreement between King and People;" and enacted, that no Parliament should last longer than three years. Your Petitioners, without presuming to add to such an authority by any observations of their own, humbly pray that Parliaments may not be continued for seven years.

YOUR PETITIONERS have thus laid before you the specific grounds of complaint, from which they conceive every evil in the Representation to spring, and on which they think every abuse and inconvenience is founded.

What those abuses are, and how great that inconvenience is, it becomes your Petitioners to state, as the best means of justifying their present application to your Honourable House.

Your Petitioners then affirm, that from the combined operation of the defects they have pointed out, arise those scenes of confusion, litigation, and expence which so disgrace the name, and that extensive system of PRIVATE PATRONAGE which is so repugnant to the spirit of free Representation.

Your Petitioners entreat of your Honourable House to consider the manner in which Elections are conducted, and to reflect upon the extreme inconvenience to which Electors are exposed, and the intolerable expence to which Candidates are subjected.

Your Honourable House knows that tumults, disorders, outrages, and perjury, are too often the dreadful attendants on contested Elections as at this time carried on.

Your Honourable House knows that polls are only taken in one fixed place for each County, City, and Borough, whether the number of Voters be ten or ten thousand, and whether they be resident or dispersed over England.

Your Honourable House knows that polls, however few the Electors, may by law be continued for fifteen days, and even then be subjected to a scrutiny.

Your Honourable House knows that the management and conduct of polls is committed to Returning Officers, who, from the very nature of the proceedings, must be invested with extensive and discretionary powers, and who, it appears by every volume of your Journals, have but too often exercised those powers with the most gross partiality and the most scandalous corruption.

Of Elections arranged with such little regard to the accommodation of the parties, acknowledged to require such a length of time to complete, and trusted to the superintendence of such suspicious agents, your Petitioners might easily draw out a detail of the expence. But it is unnecessary. The fact is too notorious to require proof, that scarce an instance can be produced where a Member has obtained a disputed seat in Parliament at a less cost than from two to five thousand pounds; particular cases are not wanting where ten times these sums have been paid, but it is sufficient for your Petitioners to affirm, and to be able to prove it if denied, that, such is the expence of a contested return, that he who should become a Candidate with even

greater funds than the laws require him to swear to as his qualification to sit in your Honourable House, must either relinquish his pretensions on the appearance of an opposition, or so reduce his fortune in the contest, that he could not take his seat without perjury.

The revision of the original polls before the Committees of your Honourable House, upon appeals from the decisions of the Returning Officers, affords a fresh source of vexation and expence to all parties. Your Honourable House knows, that the complicated rights of voting, and the shameful practices which disgrace election proceedings, have so loaded your table with Petitions for judgment and redress, that one half of the usual duration of a Parliament has scarcely been sufficient to settle who is entitled to sit for the other half; and it was not till within the last two months that your Honourable House had an opportunity of discovering, that the two Gentlemen, who sat and voted near three years as the Representatives of the Borough of Stockbridge, had procured themselves to be elected by the most scandalous bribery; and that the two Gentlemen, who sat and voted during as long a period for the Borough of Great Grimsby, had not been elected at all.

In truth, all the mischiefs of the present system of Representation are ascertained by the difficulties which even the zeal and wisdom of your Honourable House experiences in attending to the variety of complaints brought before you. Though your Committees sit five hours every day from the time of their appointment, they generally are unable to come to a decision in less than a fortnight, and very frequently are detained from thirty to forty days. The Westminster case in 1789, will even furnish your Honourable House with an instance, where, after deliberating forty-five days, a Committee gravely resolved, that, "From an attentive consideration of the circumstances relating to the cause, a final decision of the business before them could not take place in the course of the Session, and that not improbably the whole of the Parliament" (having at that time near two years longer to sit) "might be consumed in a tedious and expensive litigation;" and they recommended it to the Petitioners to withdraw their Petition, which, after a fruitless perseverance of above three months, they were actually obliged to submit to.

Your Petitioners will only upon this subject further add, that the expence to each of the parties, who have been either Plaintiff or Defendant in Petitions tried before your Honourable House in the present Session, has, upon an average, amounted to above one hundred pounds per day; and that the Attornies' Bills in one cause, the trial of which in point of form only lasted two days, and in point of fact only six hours, amounted to very near twelve hundred pounds. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

YOUR PETITIONERS must now beg leave to call the attention of your Honourable House to the greatest evil produced by these defects in the Representation of which they complain, namely, the extent of PRIVATE PARLIAMENTARY PATRONAGE; an abuse which obviously tends to exclude the great mass of the People from any substantial influence in the Election of the House of Commons, and which, in its progress, threatens to usurp the sovereignty of the country, to the equal danger of the King, of the Lords, and of the Commons.

The Patronage of which your Petitioners complain, is of *two* kinds: *That* which arises from the unequal distribution of the Elective Franchise, and the peculiar rights of voting by which certain places return Members to serve in Parliaments; and *that* which arises from the expence attending contested Elections, and the consequent degree of power acquired by wealth.

By these two means, a weight of Parliamentary Influence has been obtained by certain individuals, forbidden by the spirit of the laws, and in its consequences



consequences most dangerous to the Liberties of the People of Great Britain.

The operation of the *first* species of Patronage is direct, and subject to positive proof. EIGHTY-FOUR individuals do by their own immediate authority send ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-SEVEN of your Honourable Members to Parliament. And this your Petitioners are ready, if the fact be disputed, to prove, and to name the Members and the Patrons.

The *second* species of Patronage cannot be shewn with equal accuracy, though it is felt with equal force.

Your Petitioners are convinced, that in addition to the one hundred and fifty-seven Honourable Members above-mentioned, one hundred and fifty more, making in the whole THREE HUNDRED AND SEVEN, are returned to your Honourable House, not by the collective voice of those whom they appear to represent, but by the recommendation of seventy powerful individuals, added to the eighty-four before-mentioned, and making the total number of Patrons altogether only ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-FOUR, who return a DECIDED MAJORITY of your Honourable House.

If your Honourable House will accept as evidence the common report and general belief of the Counties, Cities, and Boroughs, which return the Members alluded to, your Petitioners are ready to name them, and to prove the fact; or if the Members in question can be made parties to the enquiry, your Petitions will name them, and be governed by the testimony which they themselves shall publicly give. But if neither of these proofs be thought consistent with the proceedings of your Honourable House, then your Petitioners can only assert their belief of the fact, which they hereby do in the most solemn manner, and on the most deliberate conviction.

Your Petitioners entreat your Honourable House to believe that, in complaining of this species of influence, it is not their intention or desire to decry or to condemn that just and natural attachment which they, who are enabled by their fortune, and inclined by their disposition, to apply great means to honourable and benevolent ends, will always insure to themselves. What your Petitioners complain of is, that property, whether well or ill employed, has equal power; that the present system of Representation gives to it a degree of weight which renders it independent of character; which enables it to excite fear as well as to procure respect, and which confines the choice of Electors within the ranks of opulence, because, though it cannot make riches the sole object of their affection and confidence, it can and does throw obstacles, almost insurmountable, in the way of every man who is not rich, and thereby secures to a select few the capability of becoming Candidates themselves, or supporting the pretensions of others. Of this your Petitioners complain loudly, because they conceive it to be highly unjust, that, while the language of the law requires from a Candidate no greater estate, as a qualification, than a few hundred pounds per annum, the operation of the law should disqualify every man whose rental is not extended to thousands; and that, at the same time that the Legislature appears to give the Electors a choice from amongst those who possess a moderate and independent competence, it should virtually compel them to choose from amongst those who themselves abound in wealth, or are supported by the wealth of others.

YOUR PETITIONERS are the more alarmed at the progress of private patronage, because it is rapidly leading to consequences which menace the very existence of the Constitution.

At the commencement of every session of Parliament, your Honourable House, acting up to the laudable jealousy of your predecessors, and speaking the



the pure, constitutional language of a British House of Commons, resolve, as appears by your Journals, "That no Peer of this realm hath any right to give his vote in the Election of any Member to serve in Parliament;" and also, "That it is a high infringement upon the liberties and privileges of the Commons of Great Britain, for any Lord of Parliament, or any Lord Lieutenant of any County, to concern themselves in the Elections of Members to serve for the Commons in Parliament."

Your Petitioners inform your Honourable House, and are ready to prove it at your bar, that they have the most reasonable grounds to suspect that no less than ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY of your Honourable Members owe their Elections entirely to the interference of Peers; and your Petitioners are prepared to shew by legal evidence, that forty PEERS, in defiance of your resolutions, have possessed themselves of so many Burgage Tenures, and obtained such an absolute and uncontrouled command in very many small Boroughs in the kingdom, as to be enabled by their own positive authority to return EIGHTY-ONE of your Honourable Members.

Your Petitioners will, however, urge this grievance of the interference of Peers in Elections no further, because they are satisfied that it is unnecessary. Numbers of your Honourable Members must individually have known the fact, but collectively your Honourable House has undoubtedly been a stranger to it. It is now brought before you by those who tender evidence of the truth of what they assert, and they conceive it would be improper in them to ask that by petition, which must be looked for as the certain result of your own honourable attachment to your own liberties and privileges.

YOUR PETITIONERS have thus laid before your Honourable House, what the mischiefs are which arise from the present state of the Representation, and what they conceive to be the grounds of those mischiefs, and therefore pray to have removed.

They now humbly beg leave to offer their reasons, why they are anxious that some remedy should be immediately applied.

Your Petitioners trust they may be allowed to state, because they are ready to prove, that Seats in your Honourable House are sought for at a most extravagant and increasing rate of expence.

What can have so much augmented the ambition to sit in your Honourable House, your Petitioners do not presume accurately to have discovered, but the means taken by Candidates to obtain, and by Electors to bestow that honour, evidently appear to have been increasing in a progressive degree of fraud and corruption. Your Petitioners are induced to make this assertion by the Legislature having found it necessary, during the last and present reigns, so much to swell the Statute Book with laws for the prevention of those offences.

As far as conjecture can lead your Petitioners, they must suppose, that the increased National Debt, and the consequent increase of influence, are the causes of the increased eagerness of individuals to become Members of the House of Commons, and of their indifference as to the means used to gratify their speculations. To prove that they do not state this wantonly, or without substantial grounds, they humbly beg to call your attention to the following Table, all the vouchers for which are to be found in the Journals of your Honourable House, or in different Acts of Parliament.

At the Revolution {	The Public Revenue did not exceed	£ 2,100,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had not ex- ceeded,	£ 1,900,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom and indepen- dence of Parliament, to re- gulate Elections, and to prevent frauds, bribery, &c. amounted only to —	14
At the death of {	The Public Revenue had increased to about	3,950,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	£ 1,950,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to —	26
At the death of {	The Public Revenue had increased to about	6,000,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	£ 2,000,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to —	35
At the death of {	The Public Revenue had increased to about	6,800,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	£ 2,600,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to —	37
At the death of {	The Public Revenue had increased to about	8,600,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	£ 2,800,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to —	49
In the 31st year of the reign of his present Majesty {	The Public Revenue had increased to above	16,000,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to above	£ 5,000,000	{ The number of Statutes, found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to —	65

It is upon this evidence of the increase of taxes, establishments, and influence, and the increase of laws found necessary to repel the increasing attacks upon the purity and freedom of Elections, that your Petitioners conceive it high time to enquire into the premises.

Your Petitioners are confident that in what they have stated, they are supported by the evidence of facts, and they trust that, in conveying those facts to your Honourable House, they have not been betrayed into the language of reproach, or disrespect. Anxious to preserve in its purity a Constitution they love and admire, they have thought it their duty to lay before you, not general speculations deduced from theoretical opinions, but positive truths susceptible of direct proof, and if in the performance of this task, they have been obliged to call your attention to assertions which you have not been accustomed to hear, and which they lament that they are compelled to make, they intreat the indulgence of your Honourable House.

Your Petitioners will only further trespass upon your time, while they recapitulate the objects of their prayer, which are,

That your Honourable House will be pleased to take such measures, as to your wisdom may seem meet, to remove the evils arising from the unequal manner in which the different parts of the kingdom are admitted to participate in the Representation.

To correct the partial distribution of the Elective Franchise, which commits the choice of Representatives to select bodies of men of such limited numbers as renders them an easy prey to the artful, or a ready purchase to the wealthy.

To regulate the right of voting upon an uniform and equitable principle.

And finally to shorten the duration of Parliaments, and by removing the causes of that confusion, litigation and expence, with which they are at this day conducted, to render frequent and new Elections, what our Ancestors at the Revolution asserted them to be, the means of a happy union and good agreement between the King and People.

*And your Petitioners shall ever pray.*



## TABLE OF PARLIAMENTARY PATRONAGE.

*Extracted from the Report on the State of the Representation, published by the Society of the Friends of the People.*

NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total Mem. bers return- ed by Peers.
Earl of Lonsdale <i>nominates</i>	{ 1 for Appleby 2 — Cockermouth 2 — Haslemere	<i>influences</i> 2 for Westmoreland	7
Lord Mount Edgcumbe	{ 1 — Boffiney 2 — Leftwithiel 2 — Plympton 2 — Liskeard	{ 1 — Fowey	6
Lord Eliott	{ 2 — Grampound 2 — St. Germain's	—	6
Duke of Newcastle	{ 2 — Boroughbridge 2 — Aldboro' York.	{ 1 — Newark 1 — East Retford	6
Marquis of Buckingham	{ 2 — Buckingham 2 — St. Mawes	{ 1 — Buckinghamsh. 1 — Aylesbury	6
Lord Aylesbury	{ 2 — Marlborough 2 — Great Bedwin	—	4
Duke of Northumberland	{ 2 — Launceston 2 — Newport (Cor.)	—	4
Duke of Marlborough	{ 2 — Woodstock 1 — Heytesbury	{ 1 — Oxfordshire 1 — Oxford	5
Earl Fitzwilliam	{ 2 — Malton 1 — Higham Ferrers	{ 2 — Peterborough	5
Marquis of Lansdowne	2 — Calne	2 — Wycombe	4
Lord Sydney	1 — Whitchurch	2 — Ludgershall	3
Duke of Devonshire	2 — Knaresborough	{ 1 — Derbyshire 1 — Derby	4
Duke of Bedford	2 — Tavistock	{ 1 — Bedfordshire 1 — Oakhampton 1 — Staffordshire	4
Marquis of Stafford	—	{ 1 — Litchfield 2 — Newcastle, Staff.	4
Lord Hertford	2 — Orford	—	2
Lord Abingdon	2 — Westbury	—	2
Duke of Norfolk	—	{ 1 — Arundel 1 — Leominster	2
Duke of Rutland	1 — Bramber	{ 1 — Grantham 1 — Scarbro'	4
Duke of Richmond	—	{ 1 — Newark 1 — Chichester 1 — Seaford	2
Lord Radnor	2 — Downton	1 — New Sarum	3
Duke of Beaufort	—	{ 1 — Monmouthshire 1 — Monmouth 1 — Gloucestershire	3
Lord Sandwich	—	{ 1 — Huntingdonshire 2 — Huntingdon	3
Marquis of Bath	2 — Weobly	—	2
Lord Egremont	2 — Midhurst	—	2
Lord Westmoreland	2 — Lyme Regis	—	2
Lord Cornwallis	2 — Eye	—	2
Duke of Grafton	—	{ 1 — Bury 1 — Thetford	2
Duke of Dorset	2 — Grinstead	—	2
Duke of Bridgewater	2 — Brackley	—	2
Lord Beverley	2 — Beccalston	—	2
30 Peers nominate	66	influence 39	Total 105

NAMES

NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total Mem- bers return- ed by Peers.
Brought forward	66	Brought forward 38	104
Lord Camelford <i>nominates</i>	2 for Old Sarum	<i>influences</i>	2
Lord Foley	2 — Droitwich	1 — Worcestershire	3
Lord Bute	1 — Boffiney	1 — Cardiff	2
Lord Portsmouth	—	1 — Andover	1
Lord Orford	1 — Castle Rising	—	1
Lord Malmesbury	1 — Christchurch	—	1
Lord Hardwicke	1 — Ryegate	1 — Cambridgeshire	2
Lord Somers	1 — Ryegate	—	1
Lord Townshend	1 — Tamworth	—	1
Lord Harrowby	2 — Tiverton	—	2
Lord Darlington	1 — Winchelsea	—	1
Lord Bulkeley	1 — Beaumaris	—	1
Lord Powis	1 — Montgomery	—	1
Duke of Bolton	—	1 — Totness	1
Lord Spencer	—	{ 1 — Oakhampton } 1 — St. Alban's }	2
Lord Falmouth	2 — Truro	—	2
Lord Thanet	1 — Appleby	—	1
Lord Guildford	1 — Banbury	—	1
Lord Camden	—	1 — Bath	1
Lord Poulett	—	2 — Bridgewater	2
Lord Grosvenor	—	2 — Chester	2
Lord Bathurst	—	1 — Cirencester	1
Lord Shaftesbury	—	1 — Dorchester	1
Lord Berkeley	—	1 — Gloucestershire	1
Lord Brownlow	—	1 — Grantham	1
Lord Pembroke	2 — Wilton	—	2
Lord Oxford	—	{ 1 — Radnorshire } 1 — New Radnor }	2
Duke of Manchester	—	1 — Huntingdonshire	1
Lord Pelham	—	1 — Lewes	1
Duke of Portland	—	1 — Nottinghamshire	1
Lord Uxbridge	1 — Milbourne Port	{ 1 — Anglesea } 1 — Carnarvon }	3
Lord Exeter	—	2 — Stamford	2
Lord Warwick	—	2 — Warwick	2
Lord Petre	—	1 — Thetford	1
Lord Clarendon	—	1 — Wootton Bassett	1
Lord Bolingbroke	—	1 — Wootton Bassett	1
Lord Carlisle	—	2 — Morpeth	2
Lord Onslow	—	1 — Guildford	1
Lord Walpole	—	1 — Lynn	1
Lord Grimston	—	1 — St. Albans	1
Duke of Leeds	—	1 — Penryn	1
71 Peers nominate	88	influence 74	Total 162

The Treasury <i>nominate</i>	2 for Queenborough	<i>influence</i> 1 for Dover	2
Ditto	—	1 — Rochester	1
Ditto	—	1 — Plymouth	1
Ditto	—	2 — Windsor	2
71 Peers & the Treas. nom.	90	influence 79	Total 169

# PATRONAGE OF COMMONERS.

NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total members returned by Commoners.
Wm. Drake, Esq. <i>nominates</i>	2 for Agmondesham	<i>influences</i>	2
Lord Clive	2 for Bishops Castle	1 for Ludlow	3
Rev. Mr. Holmes	{ 2 for Newport (Ha.) 1 for Yarmouth (Ha.) }	—	3
Sir J. St. Aubyn, Bart.	1 for Helstone	—	1
— Rogers, Esq.	1 for Helstone	—	1
W. Pulteney, Esq.	{ —	{ 4 for Weymouth, &c. 1 for Shrewsbury }	5
R. Barwell, Esq.	{ 2 for Tregony 1 for Winchelsea }	—	3
P. C. Crespigny, Esq.	2 for Aldborough (Suffolk)	—	2
— Trefusis, Esq.	{ 2 for Callington 1 for Ashburton }	—	3
Sir H. Bridgman, Bart.	—	{ 1 for Wenlock 1 for Wigan }	2
J. Buller, Esq.	{ 2 for Saltash 2 for West Looe }	—	4
— Buller, Esq.	2 for East Looe	—	2
Sir Francis Buller, Bart.	—	1 for Totness	1
Sir R. Clayton, Bart.	2 for Blechingly	—	2
Sir T. Dundas, Bart.	2 for Richmond	—	2
Sir E. Deering, Bart.	2 for Romney	—	2
Sir T. Frankland, Bart.	2 for Thirsk	—	2
Sir H. Burrard, Bart.	2 for Lymington	—	2
Sir H. Calthorpe, Bart.	1 for Bramber	1 for Hindon	2
Sir F. Basset, Bart.	—	{ 1 for St. Michael's 1 for Penryn }	2
Sir J. Honeywood, Bart.	2 for Steyning	—	2
Sir F. Sykes, Bart.	—	2 for Wallingford	2
Sir J. Vanneck, Bart.	1 for Dunwich	—	1
Sir F. Barrington, Bart.	1 for Newtown (Hants)	—	1
Sir R. Worley, Bart.	1 for Newtown (Hants)	—	1
Sir C. Hawkins, Bart.	—	1 for St. Michael's	1
Sir R. Palke, Bart.	1 for Ashburton	—	1
Sir G. Yonge, Bart.	—	1 for Honiton	1
Sir C. Davers, Bart.	—	1 for Bury	1
Sir S. Fludyer, Bart.	—	1 for Chippenham	1
Sir W. W. Wynne, Bart.	—	1 for Denbighshire	1
Lord Westcote	1 for Bewdley	—	1
Lord Middleton	1 for Whitchurch	—	1
Sir C. Gould Morgan	—	1 for Brecon	1
W. Joliffe, Esq.	2 for Petersfield	—	2
J. Robinson, Esq.	2 for Harwich	—	2
— Wilkins, Esq.	2 for Malmesbury	—	2
R. Troward, Esq.	2 for Ilchester	—	2
W. Praed, Esq.	—	2 for St. Ives	2
T. P. Leigh, Esq.	2 for Newtown (Lancashire)	—	2
W. C. Meddlycott, Esq.	1 for Milbourn Port	—	1
J. Calcraft, Esq.	2 for Warcham	—	2
J. B. Church, Esq.	2 for Wendover	—	2
Lady Irwin	2 for Horsham	—	2
Mrs. Allanson	2 for Rippon	—	2
45 Commoners	nominate 61	influence 22	Total 82

NAMES



NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total members returned by Commoners.
Brought forward	61	22	83
Sir Jonathan Phillips <i>nem.</i>	2 for Camelford	<i>influences</i> —	2
Thomas Lister, Esq.	1 for Clitheroe	—	1
P. A. Curzon, Esq.	1 for Clitheroe	—	1
John Mortlock, Esq.	—	—	—
C. Anderson Pelham, Esq.	—	2 for Cambridge Town	2
J. F. Luttrell, Esq.	—	2 for Grimsby	2
B. Barne, Esq.	1 for Dunwich	2 for Minehead	2
J. Bond, Esq.	1 for Corfe Castle	—	1
H. Bankes, Esq.	1 for Corfe Castle	—	1
E. Lascelles, Esq.	1 for Northallerton	—	1
H. Pierce, Esq.	1 for Northallerton	—	1
R. Ladbroke, Esq.	1 for Gatton	—	1
W. Currie, Esq.	1 for Gatton	—	1
W. P. Ashe A'Court, Esq.	1 for Heytesbury	—	1
B. Howard, Esq.	1 for Castle Rising	—	1
George Hunt, Esq.	1 for Bodmin	—	1
Lord Milford	—	1 for Haverfordwest	1
C. Forester, Esq.	—	1 for Wenlock	1
J. C. Jervoise, Esq.	1 for Yarmouth (Hants)	—	1
C. Sturt, Esq.	—	1 for Bridport	1
G. Rose, Esq.	1 for Christchurch	—	1
W. Evelyn, Esq.	—	1 for Hythe	1
St. C. F. Radcliffe, Esq.	—	1 for Hythe	1
T. W. Coke, Esq.	—	1 for Derby	1
T. Anson, Esq.	—	1 for Litchfield	1
W. Lee Antonie, Esq.	—	1 for Marlow	1
T. Williams, Esq.	—	1 for Marlow	1
R. Middleton, Esq.	—	1 for Denbigh	1
Philip Rashleigh, Esq.	—	1 for Fowey	1
C. Tudway, Esq.	—	1 for Wells	1
J. Dawkins, Esq.	—	1 for Chippenham	1
H. Penton, Esq.	—	1 for Winchester	1
R. Peel, Esq.	1 for Tamworth	—	1
James Sutton, Esq.	—	2 for Devizes	2
— Whitaker, Esq.	—	2 for Shaftesbury	2
Sir P. Burrell, Bart.	—	1 for Boston	1
Jos. Iremonger, Esq.	—	1 for Andover	1
W. Beckford, Esq.	—	1 for Hindon	1
Sir J. Carter	—	2 for Portsmouth	2
E. Bassard, Esq.	—	2 for Dartmouth	2
Edward Milward, Esq.	2 for Hastings	—	2
Thomas Lamb, Esq.	2 for Rye	—	2
P. Stephens, Esq.	—	1 for Sandwich	1
Lord Mulgrave	—	1 for Scarbro'	1
R. Gamon, Esq.	—	1 for Winchester	1
Lord Bateman	—	1 for Leominster	1
91 Commoners	nominate 82	influence 57	Total 139

## ABSTRACT.

71 Peers, and the Treasury, return by Nominations and Influence	—	170
91 Commoners return by Nominations and Influence	—	139
Total of Members returned by Private Patronage for England and Wales, exclusive of the forty-five for Scotland	—	309

FRIENDS

## FRIENDS OF THE PEOPLE.

*Freemason's Tavern, Saturday, May 25, 1793.*

**A**T an Extraordinary and numerous MEETING of the SOCIETY of the FRIENDS of the PEOPLE, associated for the purpose of obtaining a PARLIAMENTARY REFORM, held THIS DAY,

E. B. CLIVE, Esq. in the Chair.

## RESOLVED,

*That the following Address to the People of Great Britain, be printed and published:*

THE immediate duty of this Society is to state briefly to the People of the kingdom, for whose benefit we have acted, in what situation the Cause of Reform, and they who are engaged in it, are left by the late transaction in Parliament. In so good a cause, it is honourable to have contended, and with a firm conviction that on its success depend the happiness and liberties of the nation, we can never suffer ourselves to despair. We are not deterred or disappointed by the present decision of the House of Commons, for neither is this decision final, nor is it a question, in which we were particularly entitled to expect, that truth and reason would be supported by superior numbers. We are not discouraged by this defeat. It would, indeed, be a ground of discouragement to us, if we could believe that the People of England were really unwilling to promote a change in the Construction of the House of Commons, or indifferent about it. Such, however, is the conclusion drawn by our opponents, from the silence of the principal cities and counties on the present occasion. We trust that we shall be furnished with a practical answer to this objection by numerous and strong Declarations and Petitions from a great majority of the kingdom. These are the means, and the only means by which we expect or desire to succeed. If the country in general will unite with us in demanding a Reform of Parliament, we have no doubt of its being obtained in a regular Parliamentary way, without a hazard of any kind. If, on the contrary, it should appear, after a fair and sufficient trial of the disposition of the country, that the measure has utterly lost its popularity, and that the Nation, whether adverse or indifferent, will not take an active part in support of it, then indeed it will become us to abandon all thoughts of a useless vexatious perseverance in so deserted a cause; and having appealed to the Highest Tribunal, by which a National Question can be determined, that of the People themselves, we must submit with patience to their ultimate decision. Individuals may adhere to their principles, but it will be in vain for them to persist in their endeavours. The duty that survives

hope will never be performed with energy or effect.—On the other hand, some circumstances encourage us to persevere. We have reason to believe that the intervention of the war with France, and the alarms, whether well or ill founded, which have prevailed throughout England, during the last winter, and which we have no doubt were excited and inflamed for the special purpose of checking the disposition of the country in favour of a Reform, and of calumniating the characters of those who promoted it. These, we believe, are the true causes of that silence and inactivity on the part of the Nation which have been objected to us in Parliament.

We are therefore of opinion, that the sense of the country has not yet been declared on this great question, and that their final decision of it has not been given. The temper of the House of Commons is evidently moderated since the subject was agitated last year. The Members, who stand for the Public on this occasion, are treated, as in all cases the representatives of a great popular interest, and of the popular will ought to be, with some degree of decorum. Declarations made by persons of great authority in the House, tho' ambiguous or unfavourable, suppose and admit the possibility, at least, of their reverting hereafter to former professions, and of their concurring with us at some future uncertain period. When such men keep the opinions they deliver, within the reach of recall, it is to be presumed that others who have no opinions at all, will see the imprudence of binding themselves by unqualified declarations which they may not be able to abandon or retract, however careless of character and consistency, and though urged to it hereafter by the only motives that ever influence their conduct.

The ground we have gained by the reception of our Petition, appears to us to be important, and the station it gives us impregnable. It is not a circumstance of little moment to the cause of Reform, that a Petition stating to the House of Commons itself, such facts and such arguments, with a direct offer on the part of the Petitioners, to establish every one of their allegations by sufficient evidence, should be received without dispute, and recorded for ever on the Votes and Journals of the



the House. No objection was made to the form or terms of the Petition. No part of its contents was denied, or even questioned. The motion to bring up the Petition was not opposed by any man. The House heard it distinctly read. They ordered it to lie on their table; and after a debate of two days, refused to appoint a Committee to take it into consideration. We state the fact to the world, and leave it without any further observation.

In the conduct of this business hitherto, we are not conscious of having omitted any thing that could be expected from the efforts of a

few individuals, to rouse and engage the attention of the people to their own essential interest. They who think we have been deficient in any part of our duty, or that we ought still to proceed with activity and vigour, are bound to instruct us by their example, or at least, to strengthen us by their assistance. We have taken our station, and we shall not abandon it. The Nation shall at all times find us at our post alert, prepared, and determined, whenever we are called upon by the public voice to renew and to continue our efforts.

In name, and by order

of the Society,

(Signed)

E. B. CLIVE, Chairman.

## JUST PUBLISHED,

**REPORT** on the STATE of the REPRESENTATION, delivered by their Committee to the Society of the Friends of the People.

Printed, by Order of the Society, for D. STUART, at the Rooms of their Committee, No. 52, Frith-street, Soho; and to be had of all the Bookfellers in Town and Country, price One Shilling.

**PROCEEDINGS** of the Society of the Friends of the People, price One Shilling. Published by R. H. Westley, opposite St. Clement's Church, Strand.

**AUTHENTIC COPY** of the Petition, praying for a Reform of Parliament, presented to the House of Commons, on the 6th of May, 1793, by CHARLES GREY, Esq. and signed only by Members of the Society of the Friends of the People, is published, price Threepence, by D. Stuart, No. 52, Frith-street, Soho; and a smaller Edition of it is also published, price only One Penny, by M. Gurney, No. 128, Holborn-hill; R. H. Westley, No. 201, Strand; T. Spence, No. 8, Little Turnstile; and may be had of all the Bookfellers.

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